

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

EDUCATION AND PUBLIC POLICY

ONLY a few years ago the challenge "Dare the School Build a New Social Order?" seemed to many to be unrealistic, a little pretentious, and a little absurd. To some it may seem so still. Public schools traditionally have been tools of the state, little concerned with political, economic, and social issues, and educators have been more likely to carry out than to aid in determining public policy.

Nevertheless in the past few years educational leadership has become increasingly concerned with social problems and with long-time policies calculated to bring, if not a new social order, at least substantial improvements in the one we know.

PROGRAM FOR YOUTH

YOUTH problems are obviously the concern of educators. Long and detailed study by the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education lay behind the Commission's brief but vigorously stated "Program of Action for American Youth,"¹ adopted and issued last October. After warning that entrance into the European war would only intensify existing problems, the Commission urged the need for a positive program that, as in the stand against war, involved major public policies:

National survival and progress look inevitably to the future and must be concerned primarily with the young people who will be the America of the future. If our democracy is to continue, it is the young especially who

must have a true conception of democracy, of its moral basis, and of the results that attend its successful operation. To them democracy must seem to be worth every sacrifice and to offer the brightest opportunities for happiness and the good life. Otherwise, any effort to preserve it will be a waste of time.

The survival of the nation therefore demands that conditions be established under which the young may have confidence in our institutions and our form of government. This means in particular that our deficiencies in the field of employment, education, and health must speedily be corrected. The health and general physical well-being of young people must be safeguarded and improved in every possible way. Opportunities for adequate education must be made available for all. Useful employment must be provided to deliver youth from the bondage of unemployment.

POINTING out again that one-third of the unemployed of the nation are fifteen to twenty-four years old, that a larger proportion of this group than any other is unemployed, and that an unusual and dangerously large proportion lack work experience or training, the Commission recommends compulsory, full-time school attendance to age sixteen. After due consideration of present economic conditions, the Commission concludes that "the present gap between the number of jobs for youth and the number of youth who need and want jobs cannot be closed without the aid of the Federal Government."

Every young person who does not desire to continue in school after 16, and who cannot get a job in private enterprise, should be provided under public auspices with employment in some form of service.

The Commission has no desire to minimize the fact that it is frankly advocating a program which will add to the federal budget, and at a time when there is great need for economy and balance of income and expenditures. The actual cost will not, however, be as great as might be thought. The public employment which is provided for young persons need not be full-time nor highly paid. The expenditure per individual young worker need not exceed \$400 per year, from which there will be various deductible assets. The contributions of these young people to the aid of their families will un-

¹ Available at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, without charge.

doubtedly lessen the need for public assistance. The work on which they are placed should be designed to provide constructive work experience in such a manner that the work done is a true service to the community. Work which meets these standards will certainly add to the wealth of the nation.

Public work for young people should be planned with special regard to its educational quality. It should be superintended by persons who are competent to train young people in good work habits as well as in specific skills. It should be carried on in a spirit that will give to the young worker a sense of being valued by and valuable to his country. Finally, it should provide an opportunity to try various kinds of work, so that the young person may find his own aptitudes and abilities and may be given some guidance in preparing for private employment in a field where he can be most useful and successful.

AN analysis of health conditions—of preventable handicaps and disease—leads the Commission similarly to conclude that “the remedy for these handicaps lies mainly in a nation-wide public health program,” directed especially at the economically handicapped. Public recreational programs and adequate medical care for the whole population again, in the view of the Commission, require financial support from the Federal Government.

Consideration of educational needs and opportunities also leads to the conclusion that, though some local reforms can bring improved opportunity, federal aid is essential. The work of the CCC and NYA is endorsed, and its expansion urged.

Reverting to the European war, the Commission concludes:

In a world in which war may be the dominant feature of international relations for a long time, it seems clear that the survival of any measure of democracy in this country is dependent upon our utmost efforts to strengthen the forces of education. We dare not withhold our efforts to improve education for even a brief period. From every point of view, whether for the long future or the immediate present, we must press on in those efforts with all the energy at our command.

CLEARLY the American Youth Commission is helping to form public policy. Significantly too the membership of the Commission includes not only professional educators but Owen D. Young, Matthew Woll, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, Robert E. Wood, chairman of the board of Sears, Roebuck and Company, and other representatives of business and public activity.

EQUALLY striking are the summaries of “Deliberative Committee Reports, 1939,” recently issued by the Educational Policies Commission.² Of the reports of major committees or yearbooks of educational associations which are outlined, numbering thirty-five in all, five are classified as concerned with aims and social background, eight with administration and finance, four with teacher personnel, eight with pupil personnel and guidance, and ten with materials and methods of instruction. Yet nearly all touch directly or indirectly on public policy.

THE yearbook of the John Dewey Society, *Democracy and the Curriculum*, asserts that “the ‘American problem’ is to bring forth on this continent, in the form of a cooperative commonwealth, the civilization of abundance, democratic behavior, and integrity of expression and of beauty which is now potentially available.”

The statement on “American Education and the War in Europe,” issued last Fall by the NEA and the American Association of School Administrators, urged non-participation by the United States while it also outlined policies for the schools.

The yearbook of the NEA Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, on *Cooperation*, takes the view that “cooperation is essential in the world today. The world of tomorrow will be a world in which cooperative states made up of cooperative individuals live in peace and plenty, or it will be a world of continued chaos.” It is the obligation of educators to raise the level of cooperation.

A REPORT to the American Youth Commission, prepared by Newton Edwards, dealt with “Equal Educational Opportunity.” An important publication of the Educational Policies Commission considered “Social Services and the Schools.” A statement by the Society of State Directors

² 1201 Sixteenth Street, NW, Washington, 50c. All subsequent quotations are from this summary.

of Physical and Health Education took a broad view of the responsibility of the schools for the health and recreation of the community as well as of the pupils in the schools.

A committee of the NEA, reporting on "Teachers in Rural Communities," urged an equitable plan of federal aid based in part on needs. The NEA Department of Rural Education believed that the school of the future will be community centered, and emphasized the need for education in conservation and in the development of both human and material resources. The National Council for the Social Studies called attention to opportunities for pupil participation in community life and to the need for encouraging pupil effort to improve society.

OF course many of these reports have been concerned in part, and others not cited here have been concerned entirely, with teaching materials and methods, with administration and finance, and with teacher and pupil personnel. Yet the recurring and emphatic recommendations touching on public policy are a striking development, indicating a new orientation and a new status for education. Educators are analyzing present society not only in order better to serve its immediate needs but to discover trends and to attempt to control the direction of social change.

THE responsibility assumed is heavy. It can not be borne by educators alone. The policy, already illustrated in the World Congress on Democracy held at Columbia University last summer and in the membership of the American Youth Commission, of bringing representatives of business, labor, and public life into educational discussions, is wise and must be extended. The reverse policy of calling educators into conferences on public economic and social issues would seem equally wise. It seems clear, however, that if educators are to participate in the making of public policies, the schools will

occupy a very different place in political life, and be much more involved in political controversies than in the past. Already, as schools have assumed some public welfare responsibility, they have been thrown into much closer relationship with other public agencies.

Nor does participation in the making of public policies increase the responsibility of educational leaders alone. It is already apparent that the new policies must continue to modify both curriculum content and teaching and learning procedures, and these are the inescapable concern of all administrators and of all teachers.

ERLING M. HUNT

ECONOMICS IN EDUCATION

EVENTS of the past few years clearly emphasize the need for giving the youth of our nation a more definite training in sound economic living. The entire world has been passing through experiences which make it more desirable that high school students be given an opportunity to study and understand the basic principles of economics. Certainly there has never been a time when our young people have needed to be better equipped to meet and solve intelligently the important problem of making a living in a democratic society.

Any improvement in the general level of living depends largely upon an understanding of the forces and factors in our social order. Lack of improvement results from the inability of many to form intelligent opinions about the conditions surrounding them. It is obviously impossible, since most of our problems are economic in character, to exercise sound judgment regarding them without knowing and appreciating the existence, character, and operation of economic laws.

ECONOMICS is a study used to clarify the economic implications of political and social problems. The subject, dealing with the facts and experiences of everyday life, has been added to the curriculum to ac-

quaint students with the scope and meaning of the world in which they live and work. It is, for the vast majority, the only opportunity to study our complex economic society and thereby understand and appreciate more fully the elementary principles underlying economic life.

The subject matter of economics certainly justified itself from the point of view of its use or importance in situations beyond the school. All students, regardless of their occupations, will invariably be interested in the things of which economics treats. They are, if called upon to study important economic problems, more likely to develop permanent habits of study and interest in the affairs of our common economic life and thereby more adequately fulfill their responsibilities and duties as citizens.

THE schools, some persons say, can do nothing to improve economic conditions. They, more than any other social institution, can develop the intelligent understanding and the broader moral sense necessary to the solution of economic problems. What the schools can do to improve our economic system to better feed, clothe, and house mankind has not yet been determined. Great changes could be made easily if only there were an effective public opinion. Logical and intelligent action can come only if the majority are equipped to solve economic problems intelligently.

Education, directed more at the habits of our people, stated in simple language, related to things, and conscious of a purpose, must frankly face the issues involved in economic problems and increasingly heed the fundamental demands of economic life. The responsibility of perfecting the foundations of democracy—the daily lives and habits of home and community—is not a challenge which the schools can ignore.

People who rely upon dictators to rule them may ignore these questions, but people who rule themselves have to depend upon themselves. These people must therefore

know and understand the foundations upon which national prosperity is based. Otherwise democracy may perish.

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"THE NEW EDUCATION IN MEXICO"

THE following letter, taking exception to an article recently published in *Social Education*, comes from the Director of the Commission on American Citizenship, Washington, D. C.

The Editor:

The article entitled "The New Education in Mexico," by George C. Booth which appeared in the December issue of *Social Education*, to my mind was most disappointing. While the topic was a timely one, the treatment of the subject was far from adequate both on the grounds of material content and of methodology.

What, for example, was Mr Booth's source for the statement, "The Church officially declared the Indian to be without reason?" What led him to conclude that "Christianity meant nothing to the Indian in terms of every day living?" How does he know that the Indians deteriorated morally and intellectually? These are sweeping statements which should have sound basis in fact.

My main objections, however, were not based as much on the material content, as on the author's method of approach. The article abounds in emotional expressions. By a process of association it makes Mexican education a struggle between "thoughtful men" who have worked out a "realistic, scientific, rational" program, and Catholic fanatics, "immoral followers of ritual," whose "seditious activities" have seriously handicapped an "enlightened" program. Mr Booth's terms might well be applied quite as accurately—or inaccurately—to the situation today in Germany. Indeed, I suspect that Mr Booth would find that the same fanatical Catholic Church, which in Germany has so strongly opposed the "scientific," "rational," racial theories of the Nazis, is opposing certain phases of the new "socialistic education" in Mexico for similar reasons, i.e., the program is neither scientific nor rational.

It seems to me that this article is most regrettable, because a great opportunity was lost to explain in a balanced and objective way just what is going on in Mexico. There is much good to be said for the Mexican Educational Program especially in regard to its social emphasis, but, on the other hand, there is much to be criticized. It is by no means a struggle between the Saint George of Reason and the Dragon of Reaction, as the author of this article is inclined to picture it. Did Mr Booth ever consult with any of these "seditious fanatics" to get their point of view? Government propaganda handouts should always be accepted with somewhat more than the proverbial grain of salt. Again I say it is regrettable in that an opportunity has been lost to present a professional, adequate, and objective study of the Mexican Educational Program.

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Refurbishing Our Convictions

J. W. HERRING

SOCIAL scientists and the teachers of social science are too often victims of a pernicious affliction. They are unduly amiable. They have the wish to please, and the even more potent wish not to displease. The eyes and ears of the community encircle them, and the sharpest eyes and the quickest ears are set in the heads of yesterday's defenders rather than of tomorrow's prophets. Promotions and renewed contracts, so many fear, and with some truth, lie ahead of the propagators of optimism rather than the composers of jeremiads. We labor in a human scene, and to conform is convenient if not heroic.

Nevertheless the allotted role of the social scientist is in a true sense heroic. It is to bring not paregoric but surgery to an ailing culture. And social science teaching which misses this fact is neither social nor scientific.

THE escape exits which we commonly seek when frightened by contemplation of the heroic role, are three: (1) we dwell on the sacredness of our traditional ideals without too embarrassing a scrutiny of their present applications; (2) we turn with fine fury to the criticism of somebody else's culture, remote in time or latitude; or (3) we

turn our backs on controversy and seek refuge in the statement "My job is simply to study facts." The last escape is as spurious as the first two are futile. No man studies facts in the social universe, by, of, and for themselves. Everyone studies facts with a purpose in mind, with a "slant." The most potent facts, moreover, deal with men's emotions, with the things they prize and the things they hate. The social scientist who pleads allegiance to facts alone, admitting no commitments to long aims for humankind, will finish his days sans facts and sans effect. The alleged devotee of facts, orphaned from aims and ideals, is either the victim of an illusion or a wearer of sheep's clothing—concealment, ordinarily, for an anti-social purpose.

Thus when the social science teacher undertakes to refurbish his convictions his first job is basic. He must ask himself, "Do I dare accept the true role of social scientist? Knowing as I do that today's culture is tragically inadequate at many points and definitely and dangerously anti-social at others, have I the fortitude for the job? The purpose of social science is not to coach people in the fine art of making the sun stand still. It is to foment eagerness for needed changes. To do so will make me an unpleasant and an unamiable person in the eyes of many. How shall I choose?"

It is doubtless not in the cards that the majority of social science teachers will embark upon a course of dramatic heroism. Such a choice is rare and partly glandular in cause. It is however, entirely reasonable to believe that every social science teacher

The author of this vigorous demand that social scientists accept leadership in meeting urgent social problems is a supervisor of adult education in the New York State Education Department.

worthy of the name can accept the more quietly valorous role of patiently and unflinchingly pointing the student's way to a clear understanding of the palpable ills in our culture and prod him skillfully along to an equally luminous understanding of his responsibility for helping to bring needed changes. And this, incidentally, is the technique that saves contracts and enables teachers to "continue their usefulness."

It is possible, of course, to be entirely too smug about this. Very few of the greatest social science teachers have kept their jobs. Jesus and Socrates are cases in point. But it still remains true that many of the "martyrs" have suffered from a strain of exhibitionism. It must be kept in mind that the guardians of the temple react more quickly to heroics than to courage, and that they are more sensitive to rhetoric than to ideas.

THE role of the social science teacher is particularly strenuous in these days when history is running through the rapids of technological and political revolutions. No longer can we ask, merely, "should we seek needed change?" The question has become "Can we change our social structure fast enough within the democratic scheme to forestall the catastrophe of a fascist type control?" The habit of the teacher has been to rely with naive faith upon the casting of small bits of bread upon the water in the belief that these bits will some day come back to us in the form of a greater life. Unfortunately for this faith the evidence of the times is that the disrupting of our culture is taking place faster than the gradualists can mend it. Problems outstrip solutions, and social science must accelerate its pace even to stand still. Probably education, as we ordinarily think of it, must be supplemented by other and more direct methods of accomplishing needed change, but it is still fair to say that the teacher holds in his hands the deciding vote for or against the democratic mode of life.

The breakdown of the social scientist's job might be stated under four heads: (1)

know the world we have; (2) know the human material on hand; (3) design a world we can believe in, cut to the human cloth; and (4) shape human behavior to carry the responsibilities and to make rich use of the freedoms of such a world.

THE WORLD WE HAVE

FIRST, know the world we have. Opinions differ widely as to the character of our society. Yet we would seek far for an observer with normal powers who did not judge our culture dangerously out of joint. We may not agree with Harold Laski that there is a wider disillusionment with democracy in modern America than at any prior date, yet we would be hard put to it to devise a defense for our optimism. We spread our hands helplessly in the face of machine rule of most of our cities and a majority of our states. We look down upon the professional practitioners of political activity. We hold our elected representatives in low regard and in most instances do not remember, if we ever knew, who they are. Our political policies are formless and ephemeral and our parties are largely devoid of meaning. Public opinion is chaotic and subject to numerous and recurrent vagaries such as the "Thirty Dollars Every Thursday" and the "Ham and Egg" movements.

Of most deadly significance is the partial eclipse of our traditional emphasis on the worth of the individual. The springhead of American idealism has been in the concepts of freedom and equality. We must now ruefully come to understand that there can be no such thing as freedom or equality unless we may express our freedom and our equalness in the institutions we live in and by.

Take the schools for example: The all too prevalent timidity and colorlessness of our profession are witnesses to the devitalizing effects of much of our teacher training, to authoritarian control of the schools, to the concept of the classroom teacher as drill master rather than ally and fellow student, and to the straight-jacket curriculum. Democracy, creative freedom, and equality are

not endemic in our public school system.

Nor do freedom and equality find better soil in our social and economic institutions. The governments of finance, business, and industry are not democratic. The concentration of power in certain institutions and the draining of power from other areas is an ominous portent for America. Brave efforts of rank-and-file Americans to safeguard their vital interests at the polls are inadequate and spasmodic. The heavier artillery and the more adroit controls are in the hands of over-powerful minorities. The press, operated for commercial gain, is more nearly an instrument for control than a medium of news and an interpreter of popular thinking. So flagrant is this fact that in a recent national election the correlation between press opinion and public opinion neared zero.

NOT only are our economic institutions unfriendly to the genius of true democracy. They have in addition, shown serious signs of breaking down. After ten years of depression, with its attendant miseries for a third of our population, and with the nation's total blood stream alive with the deadly virus of insecurity, it dawns on us that we must make fundamental changes in our manner of doing business. It is doubtful whether even a war boom can draw the sheet over the outmoded methods and the erratic behaviors of our business world. We are confronted by a growing certainty that present methods simply can not be used to give us the standard of living to which our technology and our human resources entitle us.

Spiritually we are no better off than we are materially, for our economic thinking and much of our social creed are "lean to's" against a gaudy but spurious central temple of money profits. Social prestige is calculated in "pieces of eight" rather than in social usefulness. The seeker after money is so motivated that he understands only one language. It is not accident that powerful groups have dreamed dreams of pruning

education back to the three R's and lopping millions from the tax bill. The British biologist Lancelot Hogben states that "fear and distrust of education are hallmarks of the retreat from reason." The current attack on education betrays more than thrift. It is symptomatic of a myopia in our understanding directly traceable to over concentration on the balance sheet.

EQUALLY serious is the effect of our ostrich-like attitude toward the accumulating inequalities among our own citizens and their disastrous effects on mental health, social behavior, and national morale. We have let our historic slogan of equality blind us equally to individual differences of an hereditary nature and the still greater inequalities which our modes of life have burned into our culture. We have made no serious effort to adapt the responsibilities of citizenship and economic life to varying natural endowments. Many of our citizens are defeated before they start by the needless intricacy of modern political and community mechanisms.

More to the point, we have made no effort worthy of mention to overcome the inequalities which society stamps into people's lives, by changing the environmental forces that do the stamping. The inadequate man is an escapist, food for any organized folly, and the most dangerous potential enemy of a self-governing society. Our multi-billion dollar crime bill, the devastating total of mental illness and the ready popular response to the Coughlins, Huey Longs, and Deatherages of our generation, are symptomatic of a culture in which millions have not found a way of life in which they feel themselves adequate, competent to take the day's problems face on and unafraid. Carl Sandburg's "steel trust wop, old and shrunk at 40," might all too well be taken as the American Man, for of such are the tens of millions of miners, share croppers, itinerants and relief clients composed.

We like our America. Few of us would

choose any other land but one. That land is a new America, far finer than the one we now have.

OUR HUMAN MATERIAL

THE social scientist's second problem is to know the human material on hand, the human wherewithal with whom and for whom a finer culture may be built. A portrait of the current scene reveals a people inadequate at many points to cope with existing political and economic problems. The futility and self-defeating nature of that struggle for millions constitutes America's greatest social waste. The social scientist and the psychologist face together the tremendous social task of measuring the needs and capabilities of human kind against the culture. At what points does our culture fail to meet human needs? At what points do the complexity and irrationality of our political and economic structure defeat the best efforts of an average man to play his part well? If we fit the social tool to the hand, what unused resources of human responsibility and creative powers may be unloosed?

A NEW DESIGN

THE social scientist is called upon to design a world we can believe in, a world cut to the human cloth and styled to give full expression of vital freedoms. The central needs which this design must serve include at least the following:

First, a political structure within which representative government can be made a full-bodied fact rather than a shadow of a fact. To meet this need, the whole structure of government, of political parties, of citizen organizations, and of citizen training must needs be examined and overhauled. It is our favorite illusion that American governmental forms and procedures are unique and inspired. As teachers we are beset by invisible hands holding us to that interpretation. Actually our governmental forms and procedures may appear under critical examination to fail grotesquely, at

many and important points. It is not improbable that our whole system of checks and balances, created to give the people an opportunity for second thought, may have so befuddled millions that they have given up thinking at all. Checks and balances often constitute a game for experts, not laymen, and the experts in our scheme of things are not all nice people.

Second, the design must perform two delicate and major operations on the economic order. The "economic man" must be rescued by the good fairy and reinstated as a human being. Democracy and personal satisfaction must be written into man's daily work. We pause here only long enough to say that the social scientist faces at this point the need virtually to rewrite both the philosophical tenets and the practical principles of our economic order. Production must be organized with a view to providing human beings with the things they need. Technology has made this possible. Bad planning, erratic business behavior, unsound distribution, reckless waste, and misleading advertising have combined to cheat the consumer, defraud the worker, and submit the business man to needless risks. A third of our people live below the hunger line, and this, in America, is criminal.

Third, the design must provide a workable set of controls by which the freedom of the arrogant few can be so limited as to permit the exercise of the vital freedoms of the many. Along with such controls there must be provided those positive environmental factors of security and opportunity for expression the lack of which has brought millions of our people virtually to the stage of a mass neurosis.

RESHAPING HUMAN BEHAVIOR

THE fourth major aspect of the social scientist's task is to reshape human behavior to carry the responsibilities and to make rich use of the freedoms of a better designed world. Do what we may to shape society so as to encourage the living of the good life, there remains the need for a

dynamic educational process—or, more truly stated, civilization can grow up to a finer design only as swiftly as human behavior permits.

Can education reshape human behavior? Evidence multiplies that education and allied forces of indoctrination can not only reshape behavior but reshape it roughly to fit the specifications of a desired order. Unhappily, much of the evidence comes to us from agencies or nations which are using the techniques of indoctrination and "public relations" for questionable ends. Witness the amazing effectiveness of so-called "public relations" programs designed to gather tax payers into organized economy movements, condition the American public against consumers' movements, spread fear and dislike of liberal ideas, reverse the attitude of Germans toward Russia, and so on.

Certain it is that vastly more can be done to shape attitudes and behaviors than has been done in the past. Equally certain is it that the methods and the dynamics of social education as we now know them in the schools are not equal to the task. What is patently necessary if America is to gain ground towards a true democracy, is for the social scientist, the educator, the civic leader, and the psychologist to put their heads together to devise ways and means of training the full force of all our educational energies on the colossal job of equipping people to behave as they must behave to achieve and operate an intelligently conceived society.

THERE are many obvious footnotes to what has just been said. One of the most important is that we can not possibly afford to remain blasé about the character of American public opinion. The liberty of a commercially controlled press to use its immense power to advance the interests of powerful minorities is a luxury which our culture can no longer afford. The liberty of the press, once a safeguard against the oppressor, has become license to fool the

public. Democracy can hardly survive without an accurate medium of information, the means of gaining a true picture of what goes on in the voters' world.

Another footnote must be added. The educational process must take special account of the person of slender natural endowment or of a crippling background. The behavior of the disprivileged millions is one of the most serious flaws in the armor of democracy. They are the fodder for rapacious interests and corrupt political machines, the easy victims of the demagogue, and the purveyors of slander and prejudice. It is doubtful whether education in the ordinary sense can reach them. May it not well be that in the interest of democracy's survival, energetic, and skillful means should be employed to develop behavior suited to a democracy by the direct means of propaganda for democracy, for tolerance, for civil liberties, against prejudice, against hate? Our ancient faith that all men are equal and omniscient simply does not stand up in the face of what we now know of individual differences. Society will not further reduce, but will enhance the freedoms of its weaker members if it provides special nourishment for them. Failure to recognize the problem created by striking inequalities, is to dodge an obvious and dangerous reality.

One more footnote is essential. The education of which we speak must include adults. Implicit by and large in our educational procedure at present is the thought: "If the adult wants more education, let him seek it for himself. We are not our adult brothers' educational keepers." Yet if industry requires that adults be retrained for new jobs we often undertake the job at public expense. If an epidemic threatens, we use public funds for education in preventive measures. If democracy is threatened by the ignorance, the prejudice and the disillusionment of its members, must we not also take vigorous and if need be, expensive measures to dispel ignorance and erase prejudice in order to safeguard and advance the most precious thing in America?

Recording Social Behavior

BYRON B. HARLESS

MUCH has been written in recent educational literature about the development of a curriculum that would assist boys and girls in adjusting to present-day society, and much stress has been placed on the non-textbook learnings. The P. K. Yonge Laboratory School of the University of Florida has attempted for several years to develop such a curriculum, and during the year 1938-39 a program was inaugurated to determine the changes in pupil growth in an important area known as "social behavior." After canvassing the available testing material, it was discovered that no available instrument yielded the evidence needed. It was decided, then, to develop and use a plan of observing behavior and recording, as objectively as possible, the results of the observations.

The program is concerned with the study of a selected group of pupils in order to ascertain changes in their social behavior during a definite period of time. The changes of especial concern in this study were those which indicated growth in such democratic

The development of "rich and many-sided personalities" commits all teachers to more systematic observation and more elaborate records than those to which we have been accustomed. This account of a new development in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School of the University of Florida comes from a graduate assistant in the Florida Curriculum Laboratory.

ideals as tolerance, initiative, leadership, and responsibility.

The program is also concerned with the development of effective techniques for continuing this study by the staff of this school and by instructors in other schools.

THE procedures developed were utilized by ten instructors of the core curriculum with the aid of several student observers. Each instructor observed five pupils, some of whom were selected at random and some because they were recognized as behavior problems. Several teachers were asked to observe the same pupils. The total number under observation was forty-one.

Instructors and student observers were asked to record all information obtained from (1) observations of all behavior coming to their attention that seemed either characteristic or unusual in any situation; (2) conferences with parents, students, and others; (3) significant oral and written statements of the pupils; and (4) observations of detailed, complete behavior of the pupils over short periods of time.

The data collected by the observers from these four sources were recorded on three forms. Samples of each of these are included here.

THE FORMS

ON Form I the teachers recorded characteristic or unusual instances of pupil behavior. It was expected that all conduct which attracted the teacher's attention, favorably or unfavorably, would be noted. The observations covered the stu-

RECORDING SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

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FORM I—SOCIAL BEHAVIOR TRIAL PROGRAM

Name of Student: John Doe

Instructor: Mr. Jones

Record of outstanding characteristics and accomplishments; personal and social behavior problems; interviews with the child, parents, or others.

Date	Incidents	Notes or Descriptions
Nov. 14, 1939	Voluntary report in class	The class was discussing the cultivation of strawberries, when John, of his own initiative, volunteered to tell of his experiences in raising strawberries.
March 8, 1939	Class dance	John took no part in the dance. Remained about the piano and victrola. Finally left the gym before the end of the dance.

dent's behavior in the classroom, halls, cafeteria, or playground, the student's appearance, and the like. The teacher did not include judgments or interpretations. These data were evaluated every four weeks.

Form II lists five characteristics of behavior, with descriptions of each. Space is provided for citing behavior instances in

support of the description of the pupil checked by the instructor. In using this form, the instructor recorded from Form I those instances of conduct that illustrated each of the five selected characteristics of behavior, and then checked the description of the individual that seemed to describe that pupil best at the time of the observations.

FORM II—SOCIAL BEHAVIOR TRIAL PROGRAM¹

Instructor: Mr. Jones

Student: John Doe

Check below the item that seems to answer best each question asked:

- I. To what extent is the individual socially acceptable?
 1. Sought by others.
 2. Well liked by others.
 3. Liked by others.
 - x 4. Tolerated by others.
 5. Avoided by others.
 6. No opportunity to observe.
- II. Does the individual get others to do what he wishes?
 1. Plans for and directs others; usually wins support for his cause; adds to the enthusiasm of the group; "makes things go."
 2. Leads occasionally in important affairs.
 3. Leads occasionally in minor affairs.
 - x 4. Lets others take the lead.
 5. Prefers plans made by others; fails to secure support for his cause; lessens enthusiasm of the group.
 6. No opportunity to observe.
- III. How does the individual function in the group?
 1. Participates voluntarily in worthy group activities; subordinates self to group; seems happy and willing in teamwork.
 - x 2. Works with the group activity.
 3. Contributes little to group activity.
 4. Contributes nothing.
 5. Reacts in an anti-social manner; avoids all worthy group activities.
 6. No opportunity to observe.

Record below instances that support your judgment:

John is usually with several boys. However, these boys don't wait or go for him between class periods or after class. John has to go to them. John is rarely chosen for a committee but is accepted by the group when placed on the committee.

Record below instances that support your judgment:

John is always one of the few students that neglects to give suggestions for class activities.
Has rarely offered a solution for a class problem or difficulty.
Has never volunteered to act as chairman of a committee.

Record below instances that support your judgment:

Never volunteers to work on a committee but is always willing when asked.

¹ Certain items used in Form II have been paraphrased from similar items in *Personality Report, Revision B*, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

Check below the item that seems to answer best the question asked:

- IV. How does the individual attack his problems?
1. Has a well defined program with well formulated objectives in terms of which he distributes his time and energy.
 2. Directs energies effectively with fairly definite program.
 - x 3. Works sporadically; habitually neglects work; uses time injudiciously.
 4. Reacts in an anti-social manner.
 5. No opportunity to observe.
- V. How well adjusted is the individual emotionally?
1. Unusual balance of responsiveness and control.
 - x 2. Well balanced.
 3. Usually well balanced.
 4. Tends to be unresponsive.
 5. Tends to be over-emotional.
 6. Unresponsive.
 7. Too easily moved to fits of depression.
 8. No opportunity to observe.

Record below instances that support your judgment:

These incidents refer wholly to work of an intellectual nature.

John was given an hour to write a paper. He spent his time disturbing the class; consequently, at the end of the hour the paper had not been started.

Habitually turns papers and problems in late.

Record below instances that support your judgment:

In the many times that John has been reproached in class and in the halls, he has never become angry or sullen.

In the quarrels and controversies on playground he remains cool and level headed.

Form III was used by both teachers and student observers. On this form, the observers recorded the detailed behavior of the pupil for a short period of time, usually five to fifteen minutes. This form also contains information on the general situation, the apparent health of the individual, the activity of the class, and so forth.

FILING AND USING DATA

EACH month the data from the observations of the instructors, the descriptions of the pupils checked by the instructors, and

the records of the student observers were collected by the Curriculum Laboratory and placed in individual folders which contained also the records of intelligence quotients, achievement test scores, personality and interests test scores, health records, and other information pertinent to parents, the home situation, and so on.

The data were analyzed in the Curriculum Laboratory, with the assistance of the school psychologist. A composite summary was made and a provisional interpretation drawn up by a graduate assistant:

FORM III—SOCIAL BEHAVIOR TRIAL PROGRAM

Student Observed John Doe Date March 20, 1939
 Observer James Smith Grade 7
 Time of Observation A.M. 3:00 P.M. Duration 5 minutes
 School Situation: (check one of the following choices on each line)
 Temperature: Warm Comfortable x Cold
 Light: Adequate x Unsatisfactory
 Air Circulation: Close Comfortable x Drafty
 Apparent General Health of student at time of observation (describe briefly):
Apparently normal
 Students within social range: Number 4 Boys 2 Girls 2
 Brief description of activities in the classroom situation in which the behavior occurred:
Oral reading
x Check here, as far as it is possible to do so, if the behavior is typical of the student.

Record of Behavior

Sitting slumped in his chair—looks out of window; gazes at floor; sits up and turns around in desk to look at late classmate; whispers to seatmate; has hands on face; plays with mouth; rises from seat and crosses room to window; looks out window; returns to desk; places hands over eyes; refuses to read when called upon; when reader makes an error, he leads the others in the laughter.

Summary of Case No. 90,111

This seventh-grade boy lives in the little country town of Grove Park approximately 15 miles from Gainesville. The father is a farmer, while the mother teaches part-time in the little country school. The home is one of limited facilities and comforts, there being no electricity or running water. There are three children, 2 girls and 1 boy, in the family, this student being the youngest. There are two musical instruments in the home—a victrola and a radio. Several farming papers, the *Ladies' Home Journal*, and the *Woman's Home Companion* are taken regularly. This student reads neither daily papers nor books regularly. He has shown particular interest in farming and has consistently had fine school gardens. Until recently the student apparently had not had much opportunity for playing with other children for he was difficult to get along with and had quite a limited knowledge of the games boys usually play.

As shown on the graphs, this student has an extremely low achievement score. His intelligent quotient on four Kuhlmann Anderson tests are: 79, 75, 64, 75. While on the B.P.C. Personality Inventory, he had scores of: 68 for *General*, 38 for *Conduct*, 53 for *School*, 55 for *Personality*, the median for the class was 20 to 25 for each type of behavior. The high scores indicate lack of adjustment.

On the *Aspects of Personality* test, the student had the following percentile ranking: 19 on Ascendancy-Submission, 32 on Extrovert-Introvert, 100 on Emotional Stability.

The physical status of the student appears to be normal, but he has chronic irritation of the eyes.

Summary of Observations

November 14, 1938—Teacher observation—Form I
Volunteered to tell class about cultivation of strawberries. Gave his own experiences in farming.

December 8, 1938—Teacher observation—Form III
Class situation: Pupil reports being given.
Student didn't listen very attentively. Occasionally made a remark and laughed. Made usual hand movements. Tilted chair.

December 9, 1938—Teacher observation

Class situation: Pupil reports.

Student not very attentive—easily distracted. Made several remarks and laughed. Made hand and face movements. Tilted chair.

January 24, 1939—Observation by student observer—Form III

Class situation: Students helped to check serial numbers on texts.

Student wandered about classroom playing with pencil and eraser.

January 27, 1939—Observation by student observer
Class situation: Class worked in committees on unit activities.

Student watched committee member color a design. Put pencil in bottle of dye. Changed position at desk quite often.

February 25, 1939—Observation by student observer
Class situation: Reports by students.

Student easily distracted—not attentive. Spent time looking about room; gazed alternately at floor, classmates, blackboard, and late arrivals. Went through series of usual movements with head, face, and hands.

March 2, 1939—Observation by student teacher

Classroom situation: Oral reading by pupils.

Student talked with seatmate during reading. Laughed at error of reader. Refused to read when called upon. Teacher didn't urge him to read.

March 8, 1939—Observation by student observer

Class situation: Dance in gym.

Very quiet. Didn't applaud; left group; remained around victrola; didn't dance—left gym before dance was over.

March 14, 1939—Teacher observation

Class situation: Pupils writing themes.

Student furnished with topic and material for writing a paper but instead of working on paper, he disturbed the class. Teacher reprimanded him, but at end of period paper had not been started.

March 20, 1939—Observation by student-teacher

Classroom situation—Studying spelling.

Easily distracted—looks around.

March 29, 1939—Observation made by teacher as a result of student teacher's work with student on spelling

ing
Student, when asked to repeat alphabet, could give only first few letters of alphabet. Had no conception of vowels.

March 30, 1939—Teacher observation

Student asked to write a theme in class. When the instructor asked to see the work at the end of the period, it was found that the student had written very little, and had written on a topic entirely foreign to the unit.

April 12, 1939—Teacher observation

Student worked with a committee member to make a large map.

Provisional Interpretation¹

After examining all the data on the student, the following general conclusions have been drawn:

1. The tendencies toward inattention and restlessness which the pupil exhibits throughout the period of observation occur when the class activity is concerned with work of an intellectual nature, such as reading or writing. On his achievement tests, the pupil places around the fourth grade. Therefore, it may be concluded that the usual class work is quite uninteresting and meaningless to the student. Furthermore, the Intelligence Quotient as determined by a Kuhlmann Anderson test in November, 1938, is 89. In class work dealing with such fields as English or reading, the student has not learned to take part; consequently, he spends his time otherwise.

2. The student shows signs of being attentive, alert, and willing to function with the group when the class work is in the area of farming, or of a manual nature, such as drawing and coloring maps.

3. When there are social dances for his grade, the student probably feels that he does not belong, that he is out of place. As noted from the observations recorded during the class dance, this pupil did not dance, but finally left the gym before the dance was completed. It should be noted here, that the student, on the basis of the *B.P.C. Personality Test* (scores noted above) is considered quite a maladjusted individual. On the *Aspects of Personality Test* (scores noted above) he is marked as being quite submissive and introverted.

¹ This interpretation is made by the graduate assistant working with this project. He has attempted to paint the picture as he sees it. However, one great need in this program is the development of a set of criteria for interpretations of the observations of all the pupils. It is hoped that such a set will be developed by the teachers and the staff in order that all may have a common basis for using the data. Such criteria have already been set up in the field of observation in teacher-education programs by such writers as C. W. Knudsen, A. S. Barr, H. W. Nutt, A. F. Myers, E. H. Reeder, R. C. Reynolds, Katherine M. Anthony, and others.

This summary and interpretation were, and are, available to all the instructors who have pupils in their classes who are under observation. The information may be used to help bring about a better understanding between pupil and teacher and to aid the teacher in providing more profitable pupil learning experiences.

DIFFICULTIES AND LIMITATIONS

THE questions which have arisen in connection with developing a program for the evaluation of changes in social behavior, fall into two main categories: (1) questions dealing with the mechanics of the program (What should be the method of observation? How should the observations be recorded? How should the observations be filed, interpreted, and used?); and (2) questions dealing with the difficulties the teachers face in observation (How should the program be organized so that teachers, who are both burdened with and inexperienced in observing specific incidents, may cooperate effectively? What incidents should be recorded? What can be done to secure from the teachers a record of behavior rather than an interpretation or judgment of this observing? How many observations should the teacher make for each pupil during each four-week period?).

The way in which the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School is dealing with the questions of the first category has already been discussed in some detail, but it may be noted again that it is a cooperative project, with the teachers observing and recording the data, and the Curriculum Laboratory collecting, interpreting, and filing the material for the use of the instructors in guidance and developmental work.

In a school system where the facilities are quite limited, the teachers have to bear the brunt of the program, having the responsibility of observing and interpreting their own data. As far as the filing of the material is concerned, the principal or a part-time worker may assume this responsibility.

As regards the problems of the second

category, the Yonge School has attempted to (1) secure the cooperation of the teachers in conducting such a program; and to (2) acquaint the teachers with the fact that any program of this nature is a continuous, long-time, cumulative project. No minimum was set for the number of observations. It was suggested that the teachers make as many observations as they were able on the five selected pupils. Thus, the teachers adjusted the number of observations they recorded to the amount of time they had available. Of course, over a short period of time little of any real significance may occur, but it is believed that if the records are cumulative the tendency of growth in social behavior may be indicated.

As to the question of what constitutes an observation worthy of being recorded, the teachers were told that this depended upon their own best judgment. The danger came to be not that there were many useless observations, but that the teachers recorded too few, not recognizing their significance at the time of observation. Furthermore, the teachers were assured that they need not record every instance of conduct, but were warned that that which is not recorded is lost. Objectivity in recording observations is a necessity and it has been difficult to keep the records free of teachers' inferences and judgments.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADJUSTMENT

ALREADY a significant number of pupils have received more intelligent attention from the instructors due to the fact that a more objective basis has been established for judging their behavior. Thus better adjustments to the total situation may be possible. A cumulative record of how the students are making these adjustments over a period of time, along with material of a diagnostic and remedial nature secured by the school psychologist and data taken from tests in social understandings and civic beliefs, can be useful in aiding the students with problems of individual adjustment.

Institutions in the Curriculum

JOHN A. KINNEMAN

If it is true, as Charles Horton Cooley wrote thirty years ago, that an institution is merely "a definite and established phase of the public mind," then we are justified in assuming that institutions can be utilized, at least in the social studies, as the body of material out of which the curriculum might have greater vitality than it often possesses when framed along the lines of conventional subject fields.

Of course, there is no assurance that the material on institutions, if formally organized, would be more intriguing than a curriculum based on the formal subject division currently in use. A teacher addicted to the base art of routine and formalized instruction can dispel interest and discourage initiative in any field of study, however organized. But whatever method of instruction is employed, the job of the school is to interpret the universe, as Lester Ward would suggest, in such form as children can understand. Of this ambitious order, some attention to man's institutions constitutes an important part.

DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

PROBABLY the least valid reason for using institutions as the basis of the curriculum lies in the fact that authorities

Suggesting that courses in problems are too much concerned with the diseases of society, an associate professor of sociology in the Illinois State Normal University suggests a more positive approach to the study of American institutions.

sustain the position. In his days as critic, author, and lecturer, Ross Finney was fond of saying and writing that the curriculum should center about the institutions of society. The same position was taken many years ago by the eminent French sociologist, Emile Durkheim.

But more important than the opinion of authorities is the fact that preliminary education, in whatever sector of knowledge, or at whatever level, should consist of descriptions and analyses of human activity as represented in institutions. Recently, in the formulation of one experimental curriculum, the farm was given consideration in each of the first twelve years of the school program. Children in many elementary schools visit the dairy and the bakery and become familiar with certain aspects of industry. Pupils in junior high school are likely to study economic or industrial civics, while it is not uncommon in the ninth grade to find a semester or even a year given to a description and an analysis of the community.

The learning process is at its best when it proceeds from a description of how institutions operate, the services they render, the tools and techniques they use, the personnel they employ, and the area and people they serve.

A POSITIVE APPROACH

FURTHERMORE, it is sound pedagogical practice to present anything affirmatively. While there are doubtless many deficiencies in the monogamous family as we know it, I find no one sufficiently imag-

inative to conceive of a better system by which people share experiences, enjoy intimacies, provide each other with a measure of security, and perpetuate the race. At the same time if one is not interested in the salvation which the church has to offer, he may be intrigued by one of the other functions which organized religion might perform—gaining mastery over the self, appreciating the aesthetic elements of our life, or, as Franklin Giddings thought of it in his theories of aggregation, the achievement of a fellowship of likeminded people.

It is not at all likely that one can form sound judgments on the press and its freedom until one knows the press—newspapers, the literary monthlies, the journals of opinion, trade organs, and other types of publications. Knowledge of the press comes from an ability to make critical examinations, to analyze, and to detect the deficiencies and the biases of each. One can make a more significant contribution as citizen when he knows the elements which constitute a first-rate newspaper rather than the detailed deficiencies of a particular sheet. The achievement of social control, as Edward A. Ross and other authorities in the field would delimit it, arises from a comprehension of the organization and the functioning of institutions.

PROBLEMS ARE NEGATIVE

LOOKING at this question from another angle, the institutional approach gives the child a perspective of the whole of society rather than a limited and possibly distorted view furnished by problems. This is in harmony with modern trends in education, where we have been concerned with a more unified curriculum with a view to developing integrated personalities.

While, in the long run, it becomes necessary to break the material into small pieces for intellectual mastication, current trends in educational practice aim at having the child see life whole. Accordingly, unemployment is an accompaniment of mechanized industry. In its "problem" setting it is likely

to become merely one of many problems laid at the door of an overburdened government. Despite the shortage of decent housing for the lower income groups, both in rural and urban America, the problem should be viewed merely as a part of the family setting or of an inadequately developed building industry, together, of course, with all of the incidental institutional elements of banking, land values, taxation, city planning, health, and community consciousness. Furthermore, there is no need to study the Negro or the foreign born unless they are viewed from their setting in a community as well as in their relations to industrial life.

THOSE, however, who insist upon teaching the "problems" of society, by whatever title the course would be designated, should be reminded that the "problems" are merely the cultural lags of institutional life. Divorce, considered as a problem by high school adolescents, is the result of the failure of the monogamous family to adjust successfully to the changes wrought by mechanization and the reputed emancipation of women. The problem of the aged arises largely from the fact that industry tends to gauge the speed of its machines only to those with the strongest backs, the keenest eyes, and the most nimble fingers. By and large, industry shelves the aged, and they, in turn, organize to demand relief from a debt-ridden government.

Is it necessary for high school youngsters to grapple in their feeble way with suicide, prostitution, alcoholism, the hobo, and other pathologies? The lurid conditions which accompany the pathologies are not the basis for my objections. But adjustment is a vital aim of education and I seriously wonder if young people can learn it from those who have failed to adjust.

ORGANIZATION AND PLACEMENT

WHILE we might use the study of institutions as the basis for the curriculum from the kindergarten through the

senior high school, I for one, am not ready to write a curriculum on the family for twelve years of work. Nor are the teachers ready for such an innovation. However, we do offer courses on the family in college; reference is made to it in high school sociology and social problems courses; instructors in home economics offer material on home nursing, child care, and feeding and housing the family. In the intermediate grades children often learn about the family of different times and places—principally in its pioneer or frontier setting. The reading books of the primary school now deal with children's experiences in the family group as well as the pleasurable events of family life.

It is in the senior high school, however, where the institutions might be and are being studied most effectively. The textbooks in high school economics are beginning to get away from an examination of the theories of price, value, wages, income, wealth, and other conventional concepts. In place of emphasizing the theory, they are dealing with the very operation of the bank, the stock exchange, the corporation, the professions, the money system, the control of business, and the techniques of production.

Modern civics books deal with much more than the structure of government. When we talk of functional civics we mean a knowledge of how government actually operates, a knowledge of the organized groups which

bring pressure to bear on government, the social changes to which the structure and operation of government must adjust, the expanding functions which governments are called upon to perform, and finally the role of the citizen in the democratic process.

THE institutional approach to sociology should familiarize the pupil with the origin, development, present status, and the problems arising from such institutions as the family, community, state, press, industry, church, school, and welfare agencies. The high school graduate should also be familiar with the folkways which accompany each of the institutions. The professional sociologist has nothing to fear from this, for such concepts as accommodation, adaptation, aggregation, assimilation, change, civilization, conflict, control, disorganization, endogamy, exogamy, isolation, and many others will be an inevitable part of the presentation. Likewise the advocates of the "problems" course will find adequate reference to such pathological phenomena as accidents, disease, crime, divorce, desertion, the foreign born, the Negroes, economic insecurity, war, insanity, and many other social and economic problems.

If the institutional approach is accepted, the discriminating teacher will be able to evolve a well balanced, positive, teachable, and descriptive body of material which lies well within the realm of the pupils' experiences and which has immediate functional value.

Student Forums in Democratic Education

MATTHEW W. GAFFNEY

WE hear a great deal these days about the need for teaching democracy. Philosophers of education engage in erudite discussions over whether we should indoctrinate democracy, inculcate democracy, or simply educate for democracy. But despite their words and theories, we can find little as regards actual methods and techniques that can be utilized in practical teaching situations. And yet, is not the best learning accomplished through doing?

This was the challenge which our small high school decided to accept. For some time we had operated a plan of student government, and had introduced student direction and responsibility into many other sections of school activity. Although these were operating very successfully, we felt that something more could be done to provide a practical democratic experience. It was finally agreed that every effort should be made to incorporate free and open discussion of public problems within the school curriculum in as near a real life situation as possible.

FRIDAY morning classes were shortened to provide for a second weekly assembly. In the time so freed, opportunity was pro-

vided for the desired student discussion.

Confronted with the problem of how to use this time most profitably, we decided to adopt the style of forum popularized by the Town Meeting of the Air. A group of formal speeches were to be followed by questions, with the added innovation of encouraging students in the audience to express their personal feelings in regard to the question up for discussion. In order to limit the size of meetings and to be sure that the subjects discussed would be on a level suited to the audience, arrangements were made to divide the school into two forum groups which were to meet on alternate weeks. The Junior Forum was composed of approximately 200 eighth- and ninth-grade pupils, and our Senior Forum about 250 pupils from the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. The problem of what to do with the group that was not holding a forum on alternate weeks was solved by using that time for club programs.

AS the program continues it is expected that the Junior Forum will furnish the Senior Forum with students already trained in the techniques of discussion and leadership. While it was our intention to have the Senior Forums, as far as possible, completely student directed and operated, we realized that faculty guidance would be needed to get the ball rolling. The first of our forums was therefore organized entirely by a faculty member. The topic to be discussed was one that had excited no little comment in the public press in the months before war broke out in Europe—"Should the United States

Some talk about democracy is important, but practice of democracy is necessary too. This account of a successful program of student forums comes from a social studies teacher in the high school at Leroy, New York.

sell airplanes to France?" A number of interested students were chosen to represent both sides, and the material for the introductory speeches was selected and distributed by the faculty leader. At the close of the formal discussion, a faculty member again stepped in to lead the discussion. The program went off satisfactorily, but it was still very much a "spoon fed" affair.

In order to place more of the direction in the hands of the students it was decided to permit each of the three upper classes to alternate in taking responsibility for the forum. The sophomores chose as their topic "After high school, what?", and arranged a group of very interesting two- and three-minute speeches on the subject of vocational guidance. Since the sophomores did not feel that any of their members had sufficient experience to conduct the open discussion, a faculty member again led the question period.

In some way this sophomore forum caught the interest of the entire student body. When the faculty director returned to his classes after the sophomore forum, the representatives of the junior class were already waiting to plan the next forum, which was then two weeks away. This enthusiasm has continued to grow. Each class seems to vie with the next in the excellence of their preparation.

It is not an exaggeration to say that the forums have been taken out of the teachers' hands. Such subjects as mercy killing, capital punishment, isolation vs collective action, and such local issues as "What is wrong with the Student Council?" and "The club program" have been discussed by the various classes. The enthusiasm of the audience has been surprising. In a fifteen-minute discussion following the panel on capital punishment, twenty-six students from the audience expressed their views. As the older classes took charge of the forum they also

assumed responsibility for directing the question period.

THE training that the forums have provided in pupil leadership and direction has more than justified the time taken from formal class work. But the active participants on the platform have not been the only ones to benefit from the forums. The student body as a whole has shown remarkable growth in attentive listening, critical thinking, tolerance for minority points of view, and willingness to participate actively by asking pertinent questions and presenting different viewpoints from the floor.

The forums have had still another value of great interest to teachers of the social studies. Too often history, sociology, civics, and economics become for the pupil mere academic subject matter to be studied for a test and then forgotten. The knowledge is never put to use. The forum, however, deals with many social questions and every student can contribute material that he has learned in the classroom to the discussion.

It is a real pleasure to witness a student rising before a large audience to pose a question or make a statement based on the subject matter he has learned in a more formal class. The student's pride of achievement is matched only by that of his instructor. It is also interesting to note that the student who has once experienced that thrill of accomplishment comes back to the social studies class with his enthusiasm for the study greatly enhanced. He has found a practical application for his knowledge in a life situation.

These forums, which give the entire student body a practical opportunity to use their social knowledge, have come to be as necessary to the social studies department of our school as have the laboratories for the natural sciences, and they have the added advantage of not adding one cent to the expense of the department.

Public Welfare Administration in the United States

FRED K. HOEHLER

AT a time when the public relief programs are topics of considerable public attention and discussion, it is well to stop and reflect on what these programs actually provide and to review the record of progress which has been made in this country since the earliest period of our history.

The system of poor relief which existed in the American Colonies was brought from England in the early seventeenth century. It branded poverty as a disgrace and the poor man as shiftless and unworthy. In many instances, the man who fell into ill luck and sought public aid for himself or his family lost his rights as a citizen when he accepted relief.

These poor laws, little modified, became the basis for the early state "poor" or "pauper" laws. For many years the small local unit was intrusted with the care of all classes of the destitute. The restrictions for giving aid were many, revolving around the insistence on entirely local responsibility, legal settlement, and family responsibility. Later the states provided institutions for large groups of those needing special care. Despite this trend, many persons continued to be cared for in almshouses or were given a miserable allowance by the poor-relief officials. The church or private families sup-

plemented these public relief efforts in many of the towns or cities. However, these were usually in no way correlated with public services, with the result that recipients were uncertain as to what they might expect in the way of relief and the agencies were uncertain as to their responsibilities. Nor was there any attempt to integrate various parts of the state program for institutional care into a well coordinated whole.

IN the middle of the nineteenth century, in response to this need, came the first development of state agencies for public welfare. Typical of the prevailing trend was the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity established in Massachusetts in 1879. Experimentation with different types of state agencies was carried on during the next few decades. Changes have taken place very rapidly in the twentieth century. The state agency has come to be responsible not only for the administration or supervision of state institutions, but for a broad program of social welfare as well.

In keeping with these changes from the earlier expressions of public social work has come a much broader concept of public welfare in the various units of government. A fundamental sense of justice places the responsibility for the protection and care of its people upon government. The term "public welfare" has come to have different meanings to various groups. As a political science term, "public welfare" may include public health and education, as well as the more specialized services usually offered within or outside public institutions. More specifically, "public welfare" means tax-

The development and present status of public welfare programs, especially under the New Deal, are described by the director of the American Public Welfare Association.

supported social work provided as a function of government. To define the term from a functional point of view, public welfare is understood to include all governmental activities for the prevention and treatment of dependency, neglect, delinquency, crime, and physical or mental handicap. It includes programs for various types of public assistance, such as basic poor relief, unemployment relief—whether direct or work relief, disaster relief, and assistance to special groups such as the aged, dependent children, the blind, and veterans.

NEW DEAL RELIEF ACTIVITIES

THE expansion of governmental authority during the past decade has found its greatest emphasis in the social services. There were several stages in the developments leading up to federal recognition of unemployment relief—first as a temporary responsibility and then on a more permanent basis.

Following the economic collapse of 1929, it became apparent that local and state agencies could not cope with the mass unemployment situation without the bulwark of federal aid. Also there was an awareness of the fact that a person might be unemployed and in need through no fault of his own.

In 1932 federal funds through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation were made available to assist the states and localities in carrying their increasing burden. In 1933 the Civilian Conservation Corps was organized to provide employment for young men, preferably from needy families. The major aim was to place these young men in healthful outdoor surroundings where they would be given an opportunity for education and training in preparation for employment.

In 1933 many local governments were so harassed by debt because of relief expenditures, or had so completely ignored their responsibility for the relief of unemployed, that it was recognized that a serious emergency existed. It was a time in which courageous and prompt action was necessary.

That action had to come from no less an authority than the federal government because of the national scope of the problem to be met. So it was that the Federal Emergency Relief Administration was established in 1933 to grant aid to states and to maintain reasonably adequate relief standards. A succession of federal relief programs developed. The Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation was set up the same year to make surplus commodities available to relief families. The Civil Works Administration was set up under the FERA to provide employment. This program was supplanted by the emergency work relief program. In 1935 the latter was abandoned, the Works Progress Administration continued to provide a work relief program, and the National Youth Administration was established to deal with the special work problems of youth.

IN August, 1935 the Social Security Act was passed, inaugurating a permanent system of federal grants to states for assistance to and care of certain groups. This was by far the most constructive and extensive public welfare program ever undertaken by the federal government. This act was an omnibus measure providing a federal program of old age insurance and enabling the states to participate in federally aided programs of unemployment compensation, old age assistance, aid to the needy blind, aid to dependent children, child-welfare services, crippled children's services, maternal and child-health services, vocational rehabilitation, and public health work. It necessitated the reorganizing of state and local machinery to administer the new social security program in cooperation with the federal government.

THE PRESENT FEDERAL PROGRAM

THE federal program was carried on without important changes until 1939. Early in that year most of the federal agencies concerned with public welfare administration were consolidated in a new agency called the Federal Security Agency. This

new agency includes the United States Employment Service, the Office of Education, the United States Public Health Service, the National Youth Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Social Security Board.

The Works Progress Administration was made a part of the new Federal Works Agency, and its name was changed to Work Projects Administration by the Reorganization Plan of July, 1939. At about the same time the appropriation for its program was drastically cut. The local organizations responsible for general relief felt the impact of this change in increased applications, unaccompanied by a comparable increase in funds to bear the additional burden.

In 1939 also came far-reaching amendments to the Social Security Act which held greater promise for increased security for the people. The effect of these amendments is to broaden and liberalize all parts of the act, strengthen the provisions relating to administration, and give more generous insurance protection to the aged and to the survivors of deceased wage earners.

The maximum federal reimbursement on individual grants for old age assistance and aid to the needy blind was raised from \$15 to \$20 per month; the federal share of the cost of aid to dependent children was raised from one-third to one-half; and the maximum age limit was raised from sixteen to eighteen years, provided the dependent child being aided is regularly attending school. In addition, increased federal funds were made available for maternal and child health services, crippled children's services, vocational rehabilitation, and public health services. The further extension of this financial aid to children promises to ease local burdens of general relief and to make more nearly adequate family budgets possible in many cases.

THE most important changes made in the Social Security Act expand the old age insurance provisions from a retirement system for individual workers into an insurance system for the protection of both

the worker and his family. It now becomes an old age and survivors' insurance with benefits payable as of January 1, 1940, instead of as of 1942 as originally provided. The security of the family unit is now considered. In addition to benefits paid the retired worker at the age of sixty-five, the law now provides supplementary benefits for his wife when she reaches sixty-five, and for his dependent children under eighteen and for dependent parents of the worker in cases where there is neither a surviving widow nor children under eighteen. The coverage is also extended to seamen on American vessels and certain bank employees. The minimum benefit payable to a single worker upon retirement remains at \$10 a month, but benefits for persons of short working experience are now figured on a more liberal scale. The tax rate levied on both employer and employee in like amounts is "frozen" at one per cent for the years 1940-42 rather than 1.5 per cent as previously provided.

ANOTHER far-reaching amendment was that relating to personnel administration in state and local public assistance agencies. The Social Security Board was assigned definite responsibility for finding that state public-assistance plans and unemployment-compensation laws approved by it after January 1, 1940 provide for acceptable methods of administration including methods relating to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis. Other unemployment-compensation amendments made more specific the provisions for coverage. Future amendments to the act will, it is hoped, extend the benefits of the act to the occupational groups now excluded.

It is expected that special sessions will be called in several states in 1940 to deal with the liberalizations extended under the amendments to the Social Security Act.

State public welfare administrators have formed an organization for the purpose of providing a means through which those responsible for directing the state programs

could get together to discuss mutual administrative problems.

FOOD STAMPS

IN 1939 the food stamp plan for handling surplus commodities, an entirely voluntary system, was first tried out on an experimental basis and is now being extended to additional cities. Under the stamp plan, the surplus commodity food goes through regular channels, providing additional business for both wholesaler and retailer. Under this plan both blue and orange food stamps are used. Eligible persons are allowed to purchase orange stamps which may be used to make any food purchases. For each two dollars' worth of orange stamps a person buys, he receives free one dollar's worth of blue stamps. The blue stamps may be used only for the purchase of surplus commodities. Both blue and orange stamps are redeemable by wholesale and retail grocers at the local banks. It is believed that this plan will tend to bridge the gap between overproduction on the farm and underconsumption in the cities.

MEDICAL CARE AND HOUSING

EXTENSION of medical care was "in the air" because of the discussion in Congress of the National Health Bill, which ultimately failed to pass. The recently completed National Health Survey clearly showed "that with poverty goes not only a higher rate of sickness but a deficiency of medical care. Moreover, this correlation was proved not only for the relief group but for struggling families above the level of relief." The shelving of the bill, however, has not shelved the need, and we may expect a continued demand for the extension of medical care.

STATE LEGISLATION

A TOTAL of 653 laws in the field of public welfare, exclusive of unemployment compensation, were enacted by the forty-four state legislatures which met in 1939. The largest category of bills enacted—177—pertained to financing. A

recent chart in the United States News shows the constituent parts of the relief dollar. Fifty cents of every dollar spent publicly and privately for assistance and relief in the United States is federal money. Twenty-one cents comes from city and county governments, sixteen cents from private sources, and thirteen cents from state governments.

THE growth of public welfare has been almost startling when thought of in terms of the widening scope of functions. Through such developments will come a sound structure of public welfare services, solid in its foundations and built to serve society as long as it is needed.

Since the beginning of World War II there has been considerable concern lest the pressures for greater expenditures for armaments will curtail the progressive program of social legislation. While national defense is important, it is most essential to preserve loyalty to democracy and the individual's confidence in his government. It can be well established that those things which Americans fear most in other forms of government are the result of social and economic insecurity of the individual.

It is important then to protect and support these services to people which provide this nation with the greatest assurance that "it can't happen here."

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Collecting and Using Current Materials

HENRY L. FARR

THE problem of instructional materials is serious in all social studies programs. It is especially so in integrated programs in which textbooks are not followed. In Norwell the situation was especially acute since we introduced such a program for grades seven through twelve as we moved into a new building following a fire that destroyed everything in our old library.

First the teacher's personal books and papers were brought in, and the town library was thoroughly culled. Then we examined all the available printed material in the building, including the texts of other classes. Finally, pupils and parents added to the collection.

In a few weeks we had gathered quantities of smaller items pertaining to specific subjects, together with about a dozen general references. The latter included Public Affairs Pamphlets,¹ American Primers,² and Unit Study booklets of the Modern Prob-

lems Series.³ Our four best sources of material were trade associations, industrial concerns, social-service foundations, and various branches of local, state, and national government. A social studies teacher should certainly own a catalog of publications of the Departments of Agriculture, Interior, Labor, and Commerce. A good many government publications are sent gratis, others may be secured at a nominal cost.⁴

VISITORS to our classes have asked, "But how do you find these things? How do you know where to turn?" Well, it is mostly a matter of genuine interest in the work. We constantly note advertisements, radio talks, footnotes, and chance conversations. Book agents, cadet teachers, parents, and others in the building have all added their bit. For instance, an automobile manufacturer's plans for employee security appeared in the newspapers—we wrote for details. The father of a pupil, a salesman for steel, has sent us pamphlets and a monthly journal about metals and alloys. Our town officers have supplied us with town reports for the past fifteen years and currently send us town warrants, orders, and notices for use in our local government units. While travelling in Europe I gathered a great amount of material for home use. Perhaps one acquires a nose for materials, as does a reporter for news.

There is naturally a great disparity in the

¹ New York: Public Affairs Committee, 8 West 40th Street, 10c. Titles include: *Security on the Dole?*, *Colonies, Trade, and Prosperity*, and *Farm Policies Under the New Deal*.

² Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 25c. Titles include: *Business and Government*, *Youth in the Depression*, *You and Machines*.

³ Columbus, Ohio: American Education Press, 15c. Titles include: *Unemployment Insurance*, and *Tariffs and You*.

⁴ See the article in this issue by John A. Perkins, "Uncle Sam's Bookshop."

Limited library and reference materials seem to restrict the study of many topics of recognized importance. This account of an energetic effort to overcome such handicaps comes from the high school at Norwell, Massachusetts.

worth of materials that come our way. We have a federal bulletin that is a text in itself. On the other hand, articles in the digest type of periodical are often too flimsy and garish to aid in understanding the problem. A Sunday supplement account of chemical water plant growing is wholly misleading, but the bulletins of the commercial fertilizer corporations are complete and reliable.

If adaptability is a measure of soundness, our work should easily pass. For our whole collection of over 1200 items the instructor spent less than ten dollars, and the town less than fifteen. And while such methods as we have used might have been radically abused, we have respected the needs and background of the community.

ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS

ORGANIZATION and filing are, of course, important. In one respect we have been favored. Fortunately we had a large closet, well lighted and fitted with shelves. About half of its space is now lined with half-cartons of the type used for packing tinned fruit and vegetables. There is a section for each grade and one or more cartons for each unit. These are painted an identifying grade color, and the front carries a label bearing the grade, unit number, and subject.

There is plenty of shelf room for magazines, general pamphlets, trade journals, industrial bulletins, and a collection of municipal reports from all over the country. There is also space for models and samples of raw cotton, building materials, Duco products, a printing and binding exhibit, collections of minerals and woods, and the like. Another section is reserved for maps, large charts, and bulky papers.

A REPRESENTATIVE list of materials used in the study of our twelfth-grade unit on "Social Security and Welfare," numbers 121 items at present, counting text chapters. Included are local town reports for the past fifteen years; Mass-

achusetts laws on public welfare, from the Division of Aid and Relief; Massachusetts laws on aid to dependent children; Massachusetts laws on institutions under the Department of Welfare; Maine's act to provide for old age assistance; Connecticut laws relating to old age assistance; a specimen civil-service examination for social workers; a bulletin on social work as a career; a WPA four-year report of relief and security; an account of the social security act—what it is and what it does; a brief explanation of the social security act; a report by the United States Chamber of Commerce on the Social Security Act; a report of the 74th Congress grants to states for old age assistance; an explanation of employees' and employers' taxes for social security; bulletins on unemployment insurance and relief, and public assistance to needy, blind, and dependent; the national report of NYA, 1935-1938; the placement and guidance program of the NYA; a report on objectives and results of the CCC; the Standard Oil Company's employee-benefit plans, 1938; Red Cross reports of flood and tornado aid, 1935; a report of the Greater Boston Community Chest, 1936; Huey Long's "Share the Wealth" speeches; a circular on the Townsend idea—its national recovery plan, and an answer to the Townsend plan; a list of welfare services for the Canadian people, articles on "Killing Old Age Security with Kindness," and "California Votes on Utopia."

Our material is indexed by a class committee as it is received and examined. Every class subscribes to a working number of school newspapers adapted to its particular grade levels. Films are used, field trips are taken, and competent speakers are asked in from time to time.

USING THE MATERIALS

HOW do we use this material? The method varies from grade to grade. For all ages we attempt to utilize and build upon the knowledge the pupils have already gained. The seventh-grade work stresses the

learning of facts along with directed activities. There is a limited amount of work with abstract ideas. Each pupil receives a dittoed work sheet of eight to ten pages which contains an introduction to the study, a statement of the principal and minor ideas, a vocabulary list, and a "continuing" activity. In this grade the work sheet is a syllabus as well, and contains directions for eight or nine activities. There are one or two problems for which the pupil must engage in individual research. Finally, each pupil, as a member of a group, must contribute something to the bulletin board or class scrapbook. He is neither "spoon fed" nor abandoned to flounder about in the new high school atmosphere.

In these lower grades the first part of the period is spent in quizzes and in review and discussion of the next activities, and on vocabulary. This leaves fully half the time for genuine directed study. A rough draft of the pupil's work is checked for improvement and revision at an informal teacher-pupil conference. The finished product is stapled into a unit booklet. A unit requires from two to four weeks. Generally there are eight to ten fact quizzes, two dittoed tests, a diagnostic test for review and a final unit comprehension examination. All are informally objective.

In the upper grades a basic outline which develops from the discussion of a selected topic is worked out on the blackboard by the class as a whole. The unit material is then brought in and the general sources searched for suitable references. The class secretary adds to the index list. Naturally as the work proceeds we find gaps in our materials. Sometimes the outline is revised but at this juncture we usually launch a postcard campaign to bolster our materials. To avoid duplication the secretary keeps

track of all requests sent out. Her records also enable pupils to know what new materials to look forward to.

Each pupil is expected to expand the basic outline accurately and interestingly. This gives play to his initiative, ability, and natural interests.

AS a rule the class starts work on a new unit with few preliminaries. Pupils sit at the large table, talk in groups, and walk about much as do workers in a shop or office. The teacher checks the progress of the work and is always "on call." Pupils discuss the nature and worth of particular references with each other as well as with the teacher. Ninety per cent of the class voluntarily seek guidance to good work in preference to sliding by or faking.

Our twelfth-grade class chose to study a "Public Health and Safety" unit when the controversy between the American Medical Association and the Group Health people was at its height. Surrounded by bulletins from both parties, and confronted with provocative news items and radio publicity, they certainly did have a practical lesson in discriminating between truth and propaganda.

CORRELATION with other subjects has only begun. We cooperated with the science class in the study of radio and with the arithmetic class in computing the cost of operating home appliances. And we lean heavily upon the art teacher for planning illustrations and binding and mounting various materials.

The flexibility and reality of this work has appealed to all of us. The ground work has been laid, and there will always be fresh ideas and materials as there is always news for the day's paper.

Uncle Sam's Bookshop

JOHN A. PERKINS

EVERY eager teacher of the social studies has at some time felt himself thwarted in his search for materials to enrich the course of study. Unfortunately, this results in the thrusting aside of vital units merely from paucity of reference books or some useful pamphlets. Bad as the situation may appear at the moment, there is a remedy. Before the teacher's inspiration sinks for the third time, he should write to "Uncle Sam" or, more particularly, the Superintendent of Documents in the Government Printing Office, asking for the price lists of government publications.

Within a fortnight his bulging mail box will be the curiosity of his colleagues. In it will be the forty-six special-subject price lists, one of which will undoubtedly contain the references he is seeking. Each list is arranged alphabetically with annotations indicating the scope of each publication.

A PERUSAL of the price lists will bring new inspiration to a teacher harassed by a depression-depleted library. A good social studies curriculum can not develop

unless it has library resources upon which to grow. In many states the depression has stemmed those very resources. In Michigan, for example, \$2.80 per pupil was spent for libraries in 1930; from this high point there was a drastic decrease to thirty-nine cents per pupil in 1935. The acute crisis is over, and libraries in general are now better off than they were four or five years ago, but what might be called almost a chronic crisis has succeeded it. Therefore, in order to minimize the effect of reduced library budgets and still acquire indispensable reference material, social studies teachers should utilize this hitherto untapped source—government publications.

Uncle Sam's Bookshop also comes as a particular boon to the teacher who has had to work with an inadequate library, the resources of which are musty, inappropriate volumes donated by well meaning patrons and happily accepted by an uncritical, penurious school board. In such circumstances, the government publications do more than supplement; they actually provide the basic reference material which is indispensable for pupils who would gain insight into social realities. This need manifests itself in all fields, but it is peculiarly keen in the social studies. From the report of the Committee of Seven in 1899 to the Commission of the American Historical Association in 1934, it has been stressed again and again that extensive reading material is the soul of all study in this field. The National Council for the Social Studies has published lists of pertinent fiction, biography, and pamphlets.

The better we teach social studies, with or without textbooks, the more materials we need. Many of us know that the federal government maintains a great publishing house. In this article an instructor in the University of Michigan explores some of the many resources that the government makes readily available to teachers.

SOME few teachers are fortunate enough to have libraries which contain general encyclopedias, yearbooks, dictionaries of biography, parallel texts, state manuals, and good atlases as well. Something more vital and current is needed, however, for really functional teaching. Much of this needed material can be found in no other place in as complete form as in government publications. Immigration, industrial conditions, population trends, natural resources and conservation, family income, and a host of other present-day problems have received their most complete and unbiased treatment in these books and pamphlets printed by the federal government.

THREE noteworthy reasons thus become apparent for acquainting one's self with government publications. First, they serve as valuable supplements to the depression-depleted library. Second, they may furnish a sound foundation in building up the chronically inadequate library. Third, they are a unique source for up-to-date, reliable information. Underlying each of these reasons is one of the chief virtues of this material: its very low cost.

The potentialities of the offerings of the Government Printing Office become even more apparent when one realizes that they may be used in virtually all of the variety of courses offered under the inclusive term of social studies, be it traditional American history or modern social problems. A few examples will illustrate their utility more specifically.

For instance, the valuable supplementary material which pertains to American history includes an *Exhibition of Prints Relating to Early American History*,¹ the *Memorandum on the Monroe Doctrine*,² a *Historical Map of the United States*³ showing routes of principal explorers and early roads and highways, *Notes on the Oregon Trail*,⁴ and

an illustrated booklet commemorating the one-hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the seat of the government.⁵ The *Exhibition of Prints* provides visual material in a period in which it is disappointingly lacking. The next item, the *Memorandum*, is said by authorities to be the best single work on the subject. It would thus provide excellent material for special reports or projects. The *Notes on the Oregon Trail* is also very well adapted for use in schools for it is "arranged as new materials of instruction in geography, civics and history"—to quote the catalogue. Even though the illustrated booklet contains many plates and early maps, it can still be obtained for a reasonable sum in a cloth bound edition.

RELATED to American history, but in most schools taking the form of a separate course, is civics or American government. Some of the seemingly involved problems of government are made more clear with explanatory government pamphlets on such topics as the *Public Land System of the United States*⁶ and the *Enactment of a Law*.⁷ This last booklet explains that confusing process of law making in a most readable and understandable manner. Every member of the class might have one of these pamphlets for his own use at a nominal cost. Also worthy of attention is a booklet on the Federal Bureau of Investigation.⁸

As in American history and civics the courses variously called Modern Social Problems, Problems of Democracy, and Sociology, make extraordinary demands on every library. Government publications answer a long felt need for up-to-date information on social problems. In virtually no other place can studies be found on *Effects of the Depression on Wage Earners' Families*,⁹ *Relation of Sickness to Income and*

¹ Issued by the Joint Committee on Printing, 1901, pp. 343, \$1.35.

² Issued by the General Land Office, 1924, pp. 18, 5c.

³ Issued by the Senate, Document 155, 1934, pp. 12, 5c.

⁴ Issued by the Department of Justice, 1931, pp. 8, 5c.

⁵ Issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1936, pp. 31, 5c.

¹ Issued by the Library of Congress, 1931, pp. 28, 10c.

² Issued by the State Department, 1930, pp. 238, 40c.

³ Issued by the Land Office, 1937, 20c.

⁴ Issued by the Department of Education, 1930, Bulletin 27, pp. 48, 15c.

Income Change,¹⁰ and *Distribution of Consumer Incomes in the United States*.¹¹ Of equal appeal because of their charts, illustrations, and other graphic analyses are *Our Cities*,¹² *Problems of a Changing Population*,¹³ *Antecedents and Previous Life of Prisoners*,¹⁴ and *Technological Trends and National Policy*.¹⁵ The problems of our minorities can be made realistic through the extensive bulletins available on Negroes, Indians, and the foreign born.

WHETHER geography is taught incidentally in other courses or as a special subject, government publications will again be a valuable supplement. In some schools geography courses have been converted into travel clubs whose destination is limited only by the material available. Admirably suited to such a classroom approach are the guidebooks on geographic regions of the United States,¹⁶ which are "educational in purpose, but the method adopted is to entertain the traveler by making more interesting what he sees from the car window."

Equally essential as references are numerous and reliable maps. Uncle Sam's Book-

shop here again offers bargains. To mention only a few, there are maps of China, 19 x 25 inches,¹⁷ maps of Central America, 18 x 35 inches,¹⁸ and an excellent map of changing Europe,¹⁹ priced so that one can buy new ones as kaleidoscopic changes occur. Maps of every state, 34 x 31 inches, are available to show minor civil divisions, transportation lanes, postal routes, county boundaries, national parks and forests, Indian and game reservations, and principal cities. The maps of the United States vary in complexity from mere outline maps to extensive aeronautical charts. Their range also includes farm lands, transportation, public lands, natural land-use, standard time zones, and routes of early explorers. It is clearly apparent, then, that there is scarcely any type of map which has not been prepared for classroom use by the government cartographers. When looking for visual materials which will illustrate some quantitative information—be it rainfall, extent of smallpox, or extent of ravages of the boll weevil—refer to the price lists of government publications.

The illustrations given above have merely scratched the surface of possibilities of using the government publications in the social studies classroom. To realize fully their potentialities, the teacher will want to acquire the complete price lists and explore for himself.

¹⁰ Issued by Public Health Service, 1935, pp. 28, 5c.

¹¹ Issued by the National Resources Committee, 1938, pp. 104, 30c.

¹² Issued by the National Resources Committee, 1937, pp. 88, illus. and maps, 70c. (A digest of this pamphlet, pp. 35, 10c.)

¹³ Issued by the National Resources Committee, 1938, pp. 306, 75c.

¹⁴ Issued by the Census Bureau, 1929, pp. 77, 15c.

¹⁵ Issued by the National Resources Committee, 1937, pp. 388, \$1.00.

¹⁶ Issued by the Department of Interior, Geological Bulletins, with maps and illustrations, \$1.00.

¹⁷ Issued by the State Department, Map Series 4, 1932, 25c.

¹⁸ Issued by the Military Intelligence Office, 1934-35, \$1.00 to \$1.25.

¹⁹ Issued by the Coast and Geodetic Survey, 75c.

Unit Organization and Laboratory Procedures in Junior High School History

VIVIAN JENNINGS

THERE are almost as many varieties of the unit method of teaching as there are teachers who use it, but let us assume here that the term signifies a group of problems; exercises, assignments, lectures, readings, and other activities, which relate to the study of a central theme.

When the unit organization is to be employed, the work for an entire year may be planned in detail, its major divisions or content units identified, and plans for each carefully developed. For purposes of illustration a typical content unit might be:

CIVILIZATION IN THE GREEK CITY-STATES

- A. Physical environment of the Greeks.
- B. Socio-political development.
- C. Territorial expansion.
- D. Hellenistic culture.

Around such basic topics are developed activities designed to stimulate interest and promote a clearer understanding of the problem at hand. Each successive division may be thus treated until a comprehensive course of study planned to fit the needs and equipment of a specific teaching situation is evolved.

THE HISTORY LABORATORY

PRACTICALLY every teacher who makes use of any form of the unit plan for teaching history employs, consciously or

unconsciously, laboratory techniques. It is quite true that in many schools too little thought has been given to the physical equipment needed for teaching history, but practically every classroom offers something in the way of maps, books, pictures, or other teaching aids which constitute, in however meager a sense, a laboratory.

The ideal laboratory is of course planned to meet the needs of the individual teacher who can accumulate a store of useful materials other than the standard equipment usually furnished. At very small cost most teachers can acquire a collection of pictures, art objects, old textbooks, charts, magazine articles, diagrams, pamphlets, books, booklets, and the like.

If carefully catalogued and filed so as to be easily accessible, such a store of laboratory materials is invaluable in enlivening the study of history and providing stimuli to further research. A brief experience with his materials soon enables the teacher to separate the wheat from the chaff. Indeed, the discovery and evaluation of this type of teaching aids is a fascinating pursuit, and the teacher can derive much satisfaction from fitting his discoveries into his teaching scheme, and thus enriching his own as well as his pupils' experiences immeasurably.

UNIT PROBLEMS

IN the preparation of unit problems so as to make full use of laboratory materials, experience is the best guide, but some general principles of construction can always be observed regardless of the nature of the unit itself.

Problems of organization are of continuing importance to teachers. This article reflects the experience of a teacher in the junior high school of Odessa, Texas.

To facilitate the development of stimulating problems a set of very specific objectives should be worked out for each unit. With these in mind, each activity can be selected with a view to integrating the pupil's detailed knowledge instead of merely presenting an array of bewildering and unassociated facts.

STUDENT PREPARATION

NOTHING can substitute for wide reading experience as student preparation for intensive work. Especially is this true in the initial stages of a unit study. The work should always be presented in such a way as to stimulate preparatory reading in textbooks, reference works, biographies, source books, clippings, or any other available material. The students are easily encouraged to browse among the books—which have been carefully chosen—and to read anything which appeals to their fancy. Sometimes special reading assignments may be made or individual reports called for, but most of the reading should be purely voluntary and designed to furnish a background for the unit study.

The students should not be directed to complete their reading at any specific date, but should be allowed to choose their own time for initiating the new project. Usually the class can be given access to the reading material some days before the printed unit sheets are distributed.

VARIED ACTIVITIES

CARE must be taken to vary the activities called for in the problems. It is dangerously easy to slip into the rut of directing the student to read a paragraph and summarize its content time after time, thus destroying his spontaneous response to the challenge of something new and different.

A plan that is usually successful is to compile a list of the principal methods of learning such as seeing, hearing, experimenting, comparing, reasoning, reading, feeling, and the like, and to incorporate as many of these as possible in the activities of the unit. For

example, activities in connection with the study of classical Greek civilization might be:

A. A STUDY OF THE PARTHENON

1. Study pictures of the Parthenon as it was when Phidias created it (Keystone Views, Lehmann Historical Pictures).
2. Read the story of Phidias, the sculptor who created the Parthenon. What was the real reason for his being condemned to death?
3. Learn the dimensions of the Parthenon and make a sketch of its floor plan. Make a sketch of one of its Doric columns.
4. Read a description of the gold and ivory statue of the goddess Athena, also the work of Phidias. Read the myth concerning the birth of Athena.
5. Who were the Centaurs?—the Amazons?—the Lapithae? Why are there hardly any straight lines in the Parthenon?
6. Try to find a picture of the reproduction of the Parthenon at Nashville.
7. Contrast the pictures of the Parthenon in early days with views of the building as it is today.
8. Do you know a modern building which embodies any architectural detail of the Parthenon?

B. A STUDY OF THE GREEK OLYMPIC GAMES

1. Make a list of as many of the Greek games as you can find. How many of them are used in athletic contests now?
2. Describe the gymnastic training of Greek youths. Why did the Greeks so admire a healthily trained body?
3. Study the pictures of the temple to Zeus, the stadium, and the gymnasium at Olympia.
4. How were the Olympic victors crowned? Read Pindar's poem commemorating the Olympics.
5. Working in groups appointed by the teacher, prepare an assembly program illustrating some of the gymnastic training given Greek boys.
6. What was the chief aim of the Spartans in training for hardy manhood?
7. Do you think the Greeks trained the body at the expense of the mind? Do modern schools neglect to give their students the proper physical training? How do our ideals of physical education differ from those of the ancient Greeks?

Similar problems can be developed around Alexander's education, the Trojan War, Xerxes' armada, and other topics. A short period of practice is sufficient for acquiring reasonable skill in developing challenging problems.

UNIT KEY

A TEACHER'S guide to accompany each unit may be prepared along with the unit outline. The guide is in the nature of a key to the use of the unit. If, for instance, the story of Phidippides is to be read to the class when the battle of Marathon is studied, a note is made on the guide sheet with references and page numbers where

the story may be found. If special reports are to be assigned on certain subjects, a notation is made together with a list of suggested sources for the reports. This guide can save costly blunders in forgetfulness and enable the teacher to make the best possible use of the carefully planned units and available material. It is as much a necessity for the teacher as is the unit sheet for the student.

PRESENTATION

WHEN a unit is ready for presentation to the class, the teacher may well give a brief outline or summary of the material involved. The outline, which usually covers three or four class periods, should

be presented informally with opportunities for student comment and class discussion. It should be designed to give the students a background for their work as well as to stimulate interest.

No special type of classroom procedure need be practiced, but an informal atmosphere should be preserved. Each pupil proceeds in his own way and at his own rate of speed, with continued supervision from the teacher. The classroom will usually present a scene of busy students at the bookcase, studying the maps, examining pictures, consulting with the teacher or with other students. All should be intent on the work at hand, and there should accordingly be no disorder or misconduct.

I wonder if you know that about 200 farms of 40 acres each are washed away every day of the year—as measured in soil removed from fields and pastures? Do you realize that as much as 300,000,000 tons of rich soil have been stripped from the fields of the Southern plains by a single duststorm? Do you know that within the brief span of our national existence some 280,000,000 acres of farm, grazing and woodland have been so impoverished by erosion as to have little further value for productive use, with much of it permanently destroyed? Do you know that erosion is now active on an additional 775,000,000 acres? Do you know that the United States has been wasting its soil resources more wantonly, and more rapidly, than any other nation in the history of the world? More than half the land in the United States has been ruined or damaged by the loss of soil. (H. H. Bennett, "This Is Your Land," *Vital Speeches*, November 1, 1939.)

Social Implications of the National Labor Relations Act

HAROLD GLUCK

WHEN President Roosevelt signed the National Labor Relations Act on July 5, 1935 he issued a statement in which he said:

This Act defines, as part of our substantive law, the right of self-organization of employees in industry for the purpose of collective bargaining, and provides methods by which the Government can safeguard that legal right. . . . A better relationship between labor and management is the high purpose of this Act. By assuring the employees of the right of collective bargaining it fosters the development of the employment contract on a sound and equitable basis.¹

The President's closing words, unfortunately, seemed to have been overlooked. For he warns us that the act does not cover all industry and labor but is applicable only when violation of the legal right of independent self-organization would burden or obstruct interstate commerce. He then concludes with a plea that this act, accepted by management, labor, and the public with a sense of sober responsibility and of willing cooperation, should serve as an important step toward the achievement of just and peaceful labor relations in industry.

BROADLY speaking, then, the act is only part of a program of labor legislation the ultimate objective of which should be

¹ *New York Times*, July 6, 1935, p. 1. The points are also made in the report of the House Committee.

This analysis of the social and economic implications of one of the major enactments of recent years is contributed by a teacher in the Walton High School, New York City.

to create or preserve conditions that tend to promote the expansion of business and employment, give greater security to both the employer and employee, and support an increasingly higher standard of living. To many the objective is accordingly a situation where labor will not have full power—power to run the whole show as it desires and get everything it wants whether it is justified or not—but a bargaining power that equals that of the opposition, so that out of their negotiations there may develop some agreement that has at least the semblance of equity.²

BASIC PRINCIPLES

WE must clearly understand the economic concepts which are presented in this Act. Inequality of bargaining power is held to be the cause of a substantial burden to commerce, tending to aggravate business depressions by depressing wages, thereby reducing the purchasing power of wage earners and preventing the stabilization of rates of wage and working conditions between industries. Furthermore, it is stated, experience has proved that the right to organize and bargain collectively

safeguards commerce from injury, impairment or interruption, and promotes the flow of commerce by removing certain recognized sources of industrial strife and unrest, by encouraging practices fundamental to the friendly adjustment of industrial disputes arising out of differences as to wages, hours, or other working conditions, and by restoring equality of bargaining power between employers and employees.³

² *Labor Laws and Their Administration*, bulletin No. 619. Washington: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1935, p. 54.

³ Section 1, paragraph 3 of NLRA.

The policy of the United States is declared to be the removal of these obstructions or the mitigation of them. This is to be accomplished by "encouraging the practice and procedure of collective bargaining and by protecting the exercise by workers of full freedom of association, self-organization, and designation of representatives of their own choosing, for the purpose of negotiating the terms and conditions of employment or other mutual aid or protection."⁴

We have here an economic argument justifying the necessity for governmental action, which if sound in its premise, implies that the very existence of unorganized workers anywhere is a threat to our economic stability.⁵

INDUSTRIAL CONFLICT

DEAN Lloyd K. Garrison, of the University of Wisconsin Law School, points out that before the act was passed in many industries employers were banded together in trade associations whose purpose was to prevent the similar banding together of employees in unions. These associations, in varying degrees, put forth anti-union propaganda, lobbied against labor legislation, maintained blacklists of union men, came to the aid of members engaged in strikes or lockouts against recognition, and sometimes supplied strikebreakers and spies.⁶ With the situation so pictured, it is evident that the right to associate was in practice defeated.

Unfortunately, our labor history has been one of bitterness on both sides. Civil rights have been suppressed and in the Report of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor we find that

suppression of civil rights arising from the desire of some employers to maintain undivided control over industrial operations and their refusal to recognize the right of labor to exercise its constitutional privileges

⁴ Section 1, paragraph 4 of NLRA.

⁵ Alexander Feller and Jacob E. Hurwitz, *How to Deal with Organized Labor*. New York: Alexander Publishing Co., 1937, p. 193.

⁶ "Little Fault Found in Labor Act," *New York Times*, April 9, 1939, p. 8E.

of free speech, peaceable assembly, and freedom of the press is not a past phase of industrial development. Whenever the same unbending, autocratic opposition to the right of workers to organize is maintained, there is the same belligerent and brutal employment of private police systems.⁷

And yet it is almost commonplace to say that the interdependence of business, industry, and labor is an inevitable fact. But the security, prosperity, and stability of all is predicated upon the success of each supporting unit. If production, sales, incomes, and wages are to be maintained upon a profitable and equitable basis there can be no detachment of either of these forces from the other.⁸

EARLIER GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION

WHEN serious trouble appeared in the past, the time-honored traditional method of the government in labor disputes was to appoint distinguished fact-finding commissions after the trouble was over. For example, there was a commission to investigate the Pullman strike in 1894, there was the United States Anthracite Coal Commission of 1902, and the commission to investigate the Colorado coal strike of 1912. While these commissions dealt with different industries, their conclusions were virtually identical. Again and again they found that the denial of labor's right to be heard in the councils of industry was the root cause of the industrial struggle. Again and again they found that the recognition of this right was the only sure basis for industrial peace and the rational conduct of business.

Violence is no solution. More than twenty years ago the Commission on Industrial Relations pointed out some good common sense that too often has gone unheeded in industrial disputes. Violence is seldom, if ever, spontaneous, but arises from a conviction that fundamental rights are denied and that peaceful methods of adjustment

⁷ *Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor: Private Police Systems*, Report No. 6, part 2, Pursuant to S. Res. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939, p. 11.

⁸ William Green, *Social Obligations of Business Industry and Labor*, American Federation of Labor, 1931, p. 3.

can not be used. The sole exception seems to lie in the situation where, intoxicated with power, the stronger party to a dispute relies upon force to suppress the weaker. The arbitrary suppression of violence by force produces only resentment which will rekindle into greater violence when opportunity offers. Violence can be prevented only by removing the causes of violence; industrial peace can rest only upon industrial justice."⁹

The further view has also been expressed that collective bargaining is the last hope for the survival of free capitalism and free democracy in this country, and that without it we are going to have something like a planned economy.¹⁰

VOLUNTARY ARBITRATION

It is possible for labor and capital to work in complete harmony without compulsion of law. The Colorado coal fields have been for forty years an industrial battleground given over to the settlement of disputes by bullets. At times the bitterness has reached such heights as to almost amount to civil war. Yet an agreement was signed by Josephine Roche and the men working in her Colorado coal mines that is almost unique. It contained a clause which stated that it is the policy of the two parties "to defend our joint undertaking against every conspiracy or vicious practice which seeks to destroy it." And the men and Miss Roche have stood side by side and worked out all their problems.

There are many similar incidents, which, unfortunately, are too often overlooked in preparing the balance sheet of the relations between labor and capital. In Belleville, Illinois, three hundred employees made an agreement to furnish \$175,000 working capital to the Enterprise Foundry Company in return for assurances that the company

would stay in business in Belleville for at least ten years and would make no wage reductions during that period.¹¹

On the other hand, within a large industry we may find a split on labor-relations policies. In March, 1937, the United States Steel Corporation signed a contract with the Steel Workers' Organizing Committee. This action was taken in accordance with a statement of company policy with respect to labor relations issued in June, 1934:

The Company recognizes the right of its employees to bargain collectively through representatives freely chosen by them without dictation, coercion or intimidation in any form or from any source. It will negotiate with the representatives of any group of its members, subject to the recognition of the principle that the right to work is not dependent on membership or non-membership in any organization and subject to the right of every employee freely to bargain in such manner and through such representatives, if any, as he chooses.

Approximately 463 other steel manufacturing, processing and fabricating units, including several of the large independents, have also signed contracts with the Steel Workers Organizing Committee.

A far different policy was followed by another important group of steel companies, notably the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, Republic Steel Corporation, Inland Steel Company, and Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company. These have all maintained that while they were willing to bargain collectively with their employees, there was no requirement in the law that made it necessary to sign a written contract with the union. Serious strikes over this question occurred in May, 1937, and continued for several weeks.¹²

Perhaps it is well to bear in mind that in the last analysis nothing can prove to be a satisfactory substitute for plain integrity and responsibility as exercised by labor and management, collectively and individually.¹³ Neither legislation nor force has served satisfactorily in their stead.

⁹ *Final Report of the Commission on Industrial Relations*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916, Vol. I, p. 92.

¹⁰ Charlton Ogburn, "Wagner-Connelly National Labor Relations Act and the Courts," *International Musician*, March, 1936, p. 16.

¹¹ *New York Times*, July 15, 1939, p. 16.

¹² "The Steel Industry," *The Index*, Vol. XIX, p. 27. New York: New York Trust Company, Summer, 1939.

¹³ Whiting Williams, "What the Workers Want," *Scribners Magazine*, February, 1938, p. 44.

COUNTLESS have been the proffered solutions for industrial relations. Some are impracticable; some are unjust; some are selfish; some are well considered and have merit; some would demand too high a price for benefits offered; and some are the bait of potential dictators. There are those people who believe that legislation is the cure-all for every ill of mankind, whether political, social, economic, or moral. John D. Rockefeller, Jr has realized that while much can be done by legislation to prevent injustice and encourage right tendencies, legislation of itself will never solve the industrial problem. Its solution can be brought about only by the introduction of a new spirit in the relationship between the parties to industry, which he designates as "the spirit of cooperation and brotherhood."¹⁴

Moreover, if one wishes to consider the National Labor Relations Act as a fundamental reform in industrial relations, he must at the same time also realize that it takes not days, weeks, nor months, but often years for fundamental reforms to become generally accepted. Frequently the realization that they are becoming generally accepted increases the clamor and agitation of the unyielding opposition, who think only in terms of "victory" and "defeat."

THE POLITICAL ISSUE

THERE is no doubt that the federal government has taken a hand in the economic set-up insofar as rights of labor are concerned. Walter Gellhorn and Seymour L. Linfield tersely point out that "... not until the appearance of the Wagner Act had there been perfected a useful governmental instrument to prevent intimidatory employer tactics aimed at interfering with the free organization of employees."¹⁵ Today with our industrial set-up, the relative weakness of the isolated wage earner caught

in the complex of modern industrialism has become such a commonplace of our economic literature and political vocabulary that it needs no exposition. Government regulation is here to stay, and perhaps to increase. The question is how to best use it in our complex industrial system.

But this very step of the government must have and does have repercussions of an economic character, which may or may not have been foreseen in the drafting of the act. For in addition to introducing civil rights into industry, collective bargaining is a form of price fixing in the sense that it is a method of fixing the price of labor. Again, such a concept is revolutionary in American industry. It means that the price of labor need no longer adjust itself to the factor of employment; henceforth, employment must adjust itself to the price of labor.¹⁶

Nevertheless the dilemma must still be faced when, under prevailing prices, there is no margin for fair wages. The employer may recognize the union, meet in collective bargaining with its representatives, and even go so far as to open his books for inspection by representatives. Yet piecemeal legislation may give us poor economic results. The special commission which investigated the Imperial County situation clearly saw that steps would have to be taken to insure better returns to the growers to the end that better wages would be paid. And in that light a program was suggested to the growers.¹⁷ With legislation regulating hours, wages, price fixing, and labor relations we are approaching some sort of a planned economy, whether we want to admit it or not.

THE ECONOMIC ISSUE

THE important point is that the problem is essentially economic rather than legal. Mr Justice Kephart, known for his advanced views on economic problems, has

¹⁴ *The Personal Relation in Industry*. New York: Boni, 1930, pp. 10-11.

¹⁵ "Politics and Labor Relations: An Appraisal of Criticisms of N.L.R.B. Procedure," *Columbia Law Review*, March, 1939, Vol. 39, p. 339.

¹⁶ Sumner H. Slichter, "The Changing Character of American Industrial Relations," *The American Economic Review*, March, 1939, Vol. XXIX, Supplement to Part 2, p. 125.

¹⁷ *Report of the National Labor Board by Special Commission*, Release No. 3325, February 11, 1934, p. 12.

on more than one occasion pointed out that the problem is not one for the courts to decide and that some other tribunal should attempt to solve the problem.¹⁸ In the third annual report of the National Labor Relations Board we find data which would substantiate the claim that the workers are using the act to settle disputes instead of resorting to the use of the strike.¹⁹

With collective bargaining, much of the economic waste due to the strike can be minimized. One of the fallacies of popular thought is that the worker enjoys going on a strike. This is far from the truth. The strike has brought much inconvenience, much suffering, often real misery to women and children, and has sometimes ended in bloodshed and riots. Strikes are paradoxical weapons that usually leave the disputants exactly where they began, except for exhaustion, worn nerves, and bitterness. For when the strike is over, the negotiations begin and some kind of an understanding must be reached. But the emotions that have been whipped up make future peaceful settlements more difficult.²⁰

THE SOCIAL ISSUE

It is time to realize that a strike is a powerful weapon, and a dangerous one in that it will not only injure the employer, but also, in many cases, the community in which the business or industry is situated. It means that the employer will lose a profit or face a serious loss. It often means that the community, threatened with the deprivation of some essential service, will bring pressure on the employer to yield. We have data from many reputable and independent sources which show how enormous has been the loss in wages, trade, and commerce from such strife.²¹

¹⁸ See cases of *Kirmse v. Adler*, *Pennsylvania State Reports*, Vol. 311, pp. 78, 83; and *Jefferson and Indiana Coal Company, v. Marks et al*, *Pennsylvania State Reports*, Vol. 287, p. 174, 1926.

¹⁹ Washington: Government Printing Office, 1928, pp. 1-3.

²⁰ M. H. Hedges, *A Strikeless Industry*. New York: John Day, 1932, p. 12.

Since workers have the right to organize, and since recognition of that right does avert many costly strikes and lockouts, which in the long run often solve nothing at all, there is no logical reason why the orderly process of collective bargaining should not be substituted for the industrial strike occasioned by anti-union tendencies. Experience dictates that unless the public possesses a more thorough and impartial knowledge of the principles involved in the American labor movement, voluntary and non-coercive measures will fail. Hence, at least for the present, some sort of governmental action must be taken which is powerful enough to command respect and enforcement.

Society itself must be considered, for the labor contract is not strictly a private concern between employer and employee. The community is interested in the support of the worker. Only too well have communities in recent years learned what it really means when the worker becomes a subject of relief and a burden on the taxpayers. From another viewpoint, the community is interested in his health, in his family, and in the contribution which his labor may make to the advancement of society. The employer and his rights must also be protected. An enlightened society can not refuse to view this subject of industrial disputes in its proper proportions and without a distorted emotional background.²²

²¹ See C. R. Daugherty, *Labor Problems in American Industry*, New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1933, pp. 356, 358, 360; Paul H. Douglas, "An Analysis of Strike Statistics," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, September, 1923, pp. 866-77; *Monthly Labor Review*, Washington: Bureau of Labor Statistics, June, 1932, pp. 1353-62; W. I. King, *The National Income and Its Purchasing Power*, New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1930, p. 56; United States Coal Commission, *Labor Relations in the Bituminous Coal Industry*, Washington, 1923; *Proceedings of the National Association of Manufacturers Convention*, 1926, p. 136; *Report of the Board of Inquiry for the Cotton Textile Industry*, Washington, 1934.

²² See Foreword to the *First Annual Report of the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board for 1937*, Harrisburg.

Using Community Resources in the Primary Grades

MABEL SNEDAKER

A THIRD-GRADE teacher who had supplied her pupils with many pictures and with much collateral reading during the study of the problem, "How did the pioneers of our state build their homes?" was chagrined to find in one child's summary this explanation of "chinking logs": "The pioneers put wet clay between the logs to stick them together and keep the top logs from rolling off."

Such a misconception is typical of those that arise when pupils are reading about ideas that are remote from their experience. Even the carefully directed study of good pictures may result in incomplete, inadequate concepts. Children who had examined pictures of a flail in *The Pageant of America* and other dependable sources were given a real pioneer flail and allowed to swing it. All were surprised at the flail's size and weight. "It must have been hard work to swing that thing all day long," was the remark of one of the children.

HISTORICAL TRIPS

TO supply the elements of experience out of which clear and accurate ideas about the pioneer cabin might be built, these third

Knowledge of available resources, experience, and planning all enter into the obviously effective teaching and learning described by the supervisor of social studies and extension in the Elementary School of the University of Iowa.

grade children were taken on a number of field trips. They were driven twenty-five miles to study a log cabin maintained by the Daughters of the American Revolution of a neighboring city. The cabin, built in 1840, is furnished with authentic pioneer household equipment. The handmade bed is covered with a quilt dyed with butternut dye. The curtains at the windows have been fluted with the fluting iron on the mantle. Old square-lensed spectacles rest on the large family Bible; an old dress and slat sunbonnet hang on a wooden peg. A long gun is set on pegs over the door. A low wooden cradle stands near the fireplace. An almanac hangs by the window. A spinning wheel, bootjack, wooden churn, wooden bowls, iron spider, and many other articles are in appropriate places about the room. The children were able to identify "punchon," "clapboard," "chinking," and other parts of the pioneer cabin. They noted details of furnishings.¹

This firsthand experience so deepened understanding and interest in the pioneer home and its furnishings that the school felt the day given over to the field trip was well-spent. Indeed, it was soon discovered that those problems dealing with pioneer life for which concrete illustrative objects were lacking or for which activities that deepened understanding could not be carried out, were not interesting to the children, and were but superficially understood. Therefore, every possible community resource that might help in the formation of accurate,

¹ See Mabel Snedaker, "Interest and Efficiency in Reading," *Social Education*, December, 1937.

and well organized concepts about pioneer life in Iowa, was utilized. The children visited one of the earliest wells dug in Iowa City and heard from the old gentleman whose father had hired the well dug the story of how a candle was lowered to test for "damp" and of how the well-digger said his prayers each morning before going into the well. Old people who could give information about pioneer days were interviewed or asked to come to the school and talk. They taught the children how to sing the multiplication table, how to play pioneer games, and how to call off the square dance. They demonstrated how to spin; they furnished the children with recipes for making hominy, soft soap, and corn pone; and supplied a wealth of interesting details about many phases of pioneer life. Dozens of pioneer articles were loaned to the school for use during the study of the problems to which they were pertinent.

ENLISTING community interest proved profitable to the school in another way. The third grade was given a spinning wheel, bullet mold, tin lantern, candle molds, and numerous tools and utensils for a permanent collection.

The pupils were encouraged to visit historic sites in leisure time. One pupil copied and read to the class the inscription from a historic marker not far from the town:

South of this boulder on the banks of Clear Creek, is the site of the "Mormon Handcart Brigade" camp. In 1856, some thirteen hundred European immigrants, converts of the Mormon faith, detrained at Iowa City, the end of the railroad. Encamped here they made handcarts and equipment for their journey on foot to Salt Lake City.

After hearing this inscription and a report of the kind of land on which the camp was made, the children wanted to know more about the Mormons' stay in Iowa City. Later they visited the old building which once served as the blacksmith shop where the horses of the Mormons were shod. During the study of pioneer methods of transportation, many children persuaded parents to drive them along the old trail to

Dubuque. The topography of the route was noted, and a barn in which the stage horses were changed and houses that were taverns in stage-coach days were visited.

In order to meet the demands of these community contacts or to satisfy the interests stimulated, many letters and reports were written. Standards of safety and of behavior were set up, drawings were made, songs learned, and constructive activities were carried out in the classroom. Integration of social studies with all curriculum fields became a necessary procedure.

A GEOLOGY TRIP

A SECOND example of the extent to which the field trip may enrich and vitalize the social studies was evidenced in the experiences of a fifth grade during the study of the unit, "How the surface of the earth came to be as it is today." While on a field trip to a deep highway cut, several boys had the thrilling experience of discovering a new soil profile of which the teacher was unaware. They found and identified a layer of gumbo till between Nebraskan glacial till and Kansan glacial till. They collected the materials and constructed to scale, in the classroom, a model of this soil profile showing limestone, Nebraskan glacial till, gumbo till, Kansan glacial till, loess, and loam. Additional field trips were made by the group in order to observe quarry veins and pockets in the Devonian limestone of a bluff, to observe coral deposits and other formations, and to study the effects of erosion. Spurred on by the interest and satisfaction that come from insight, these boys and girls have spent their leisure in collecting and classifying an amazing amount of material. They have found interesting and excellent examples of Brachiopods, crinids, and other fossils, of geodes and similar concretions, and of rocks of many types. These they have classified and labeled under the categories of solution deposits, fossils, wood from forest beds, sedimentary rocks, and others. They have arranged specimens to show rock cycles, and

they have cut out of old magazines pictures that show various ways in which soils are eroded, and have mounted these pictures together with clear explanations written about each. These children are deeply interested in the problems of rock and soil formation and have a surprising amount of accurate knowledge concerning them.

The adequate understandings that were developed through field trips during the study of "How the surface of the earth came to be as it is today," will build progressively better understandings in succeeding units, for the geologic concepts established are essential to an understanding of fuels and water power in the unit on "Fuel and Power," and to an understanding of soil erosion in the unit on "Conservation." However, the fifth grade will not rely wholly on these first field trips as the means of stimulating adequate understandings of later units. They will make other trips in which they will measure slopes, and on the basis of this knowledge determine the height of the dams that they will build to prevent erosion. If there is need, they will no doubt again band elm trees to prevent the ravages of cankerworm moths. They will learn through actual participation how to trim a tree correctly, and, if plans materialize, will fell a tree and have it sawed into rough lumber.

A FARM UNIT

PERHAPS no other unit of social studies better illustrates the difficulties that confront the pupil who must form concepts on the basis of reading context and pictures alone than a Farm Unit. Although this unit is considered in many primary grades there is little reading material that will help the child to understand the work of the farmer. The following description of harvesting corn is quoted from one of the best discussions of this topic to be found in any reader at primary level.

Some farmers cut the corn stalks and put them into shocks.

They leave the shocks in the field.

They let the sun dry the shocks.

Then the corn is ready to husk.

Husks are like little leaves around the ears of corn. The farmers husk the corn and take the ears to the barn.

Many farmers do not husk the corn stalks.

The farmers husk the corn while the plants are in the rows.

This is the way the farmer husks the corn.

He goes to the corn field with his horses and wagon.

The farmer walks along the rows of corn.

He pulls the ears off the stalks.

He husks the ears. He throws them in the wagon.

Children who had never seen corn harvested were unable to follow this process. When asked to draw an ear of corn with the husks on, some drew a rosette of small leaves at the base of the ear, because the story reads, "Husks are like little leaves around the ears of corn."

Contrast the meager information in this bare recital of steps in a process with the stories dictated by children who had visited a corn field and actually husked some corn.

RIDING IN THE CORN WAGON

We had a ride in the corn wagon. The man put the end-gate down and helped us to get in. The wagon was full of children.

One side of the wagon was higher than the other. It had more side boards so the corn would not fall out. We could not even touch the top of this side of the wagon.

The team started out slowly, but most of us fell down. We went down a gravelled road over bumps and bumps!

We went in a little ditch. Everyone said, "Oh."

The horses went lickety-split over a little bridge and into the corn field.

The team stopped! All the children bumped again.

Pat let the end-gate down, and we were out in the corn field.

THE CORN PICKER

After we came to the corn field, Pat unhitched the horses. He hitched the corn wagon to the tractor. The corn picker was attached to the side of the wagon.

The tractor started. The wagon and corn picker went down the row of corn. The ears fell in the wagon. They went up a chute. The husks were taken off of the ears. The stalks fell down and the wagon went over them.

The corn picker did not get all of the ears. These ears fell on the ground. Then two men had to drive a truck along the rows and pick up all of these ears. That is why some farmers do not like a mechanical corn picker.

The weather conditions were good this year. Mr Dane's corn grew so high his men could not reach the ears. That is why he used a corn picker.

The corn picker picks corn faster than a man can do it.

We saw some stalks still standing. Mrs Dane told us that the men had picked the ears from these stalks.

EXCERPTS from other stories dictated by these children during the year show a knowledge about the growing and harvest-

ing of corn that could not have been acquired without seeing processes in operation.

The farmer spreads manure on the fields because it gives the corn food. It is a fertilizer. Some farmers plow clover under. It is green manure. The experiment station near Clarinda found that a ton of green manure will make crops grow as well as a ton of barnyard manure.

The farmer harrows his field to make the soil fine and smooth so that it will hold moisture. As soon as the corn is up the farmer must cultivate it to keep the moisture in.

The cows were eating silage. Silage is green corn cut up in little pieces. It is corn stalks, leaves, and ears, all cut up together. The farmer cuts the corn up when it is green and has juice in it. The silage chopper sprinkles the chopped corn, and blows it into the silo. A man tramps the chopped corn down. It is left to ferment and make silage. Mrs Dane calls silage the cow's salad because it is something green for the cows to eat in winter. Farmers do not feed silage when the cows can eat green grass.

The reason why farmers test corn is because they can't tell by looking at it whether it will grow. It might have a disease on it. When an early frost comes, it sometimes kills the germs. We are going to test seed corn in a rag-doll tester.

There were spaces between the boards on the side of the crib. Mrs Dane told us that these spaces were put there so that air could go through the crib and keep the corn dry so that it wouldn't get moldy.

Another year the children of the first grade dictated the following paragraph:

This year the farmer's corn crops were not very good. The corn wasn't good enough to pick. Most of the corn was made into silage. The farmers needed more silos but didn't have the money to build them. Some farmers made pit silos this year. Others made silos by piling baled hay in a circle. Many dug trenches in the ground. We saw all these.

Similarly, for other aspects:

We fertilized the garden by putting leaf mold on it. Leaf mold is decayed leaves that have turned into soil.

The farmer butchers in the winter to get meat and lard for his family. Most of his hogs he sells alive. He usually ships them to Chicago. He uses the money he gets for them to buy things that his family needs.

SINCE accurate knowledge and complete understandings are more likely to be achieved through the intensive study of a few units than through the superficial study of many units, a whole year was devoted to "The Farm." This course of study serves admirably as a basis for developing understandings concerning the nine topics suggested for study in primary grades by the committee on geography of the National

Society for the Study of Education.² The first of these nine topics is stated as follows: "The annual march of the seasons in the home locality may be observed, and its relations to plant life, animal life, and human life of the community noted."

The relations of the seasons to work on the farm is emphasized throughout the course of study on "Farm Life." The harvesting of the garden planted by the preceding first grade is the first activity in the fall. Vegetables are stored for winter use, seeds are gathered and stored, weeds that have gone to seed are burned and a compost heap is made. After the first freeze the perennials are covered with leaves. The second unit in the course of study, "The Farm in the Fall," is introduced by discussion of visits made by the children to the farm during the summer holidays. As children relate their experiences during haying and threshing, the teacher centers the discussion around the harvest and its importance, the different kinds of food harvested for man and beast, and other work done on the farm. She then asks, "What work do you think is being done on the farm now? If we took a trip to a farm what work do you think you would find being done there?" During the all-day excursion to the farm which follows the raising of problems and the careful planning of the trip, the children watch corn being harvested by a combine, see corn being husked by hand, and often have a try at using a husking peg themselves.

DURING the study of the unit "The Farm in Winter," the effect of the winter season upon the farmer's work is observed through the discussion of such topics as the work necessary to care for stock; the large amount of "choring" necessary in order to keep up fires, shovel paths, and clean buildings, to butcher on the farm, to saw wood, to repair fences, machinery and buildings, for all of which the farmer does not have time during the planting and har-

² Reported in the *Thirty-second Yearbook* (1933), Part I.

vesting seasons. In connection with the study of how the farmer markets his milk, eggs, and poultry, the children inspect a produce house, a pasteurization plant, and a hatchery. A day is spent in a country school and the children of the rural school are later entertained for a day at the University Elementary School, the first grade assuming responsibility for all arrangements.

As a part of the unit "The Farm in Spring," children visit the farm to gain information concerning the care of baby animals, how the ground is prepared for planting, how the seeds are planted, what machinery is used in these processes, and the work of the farmer's wife in the spring. Planting a garden in the spring and caring for it during the summer, hatching and caring for the chickens, and selling these chickens at the produce house in the fall, give the children further knowledge of the relation of the farmer's work to the seasons.

THE utilization of soil for various purposes, the importance of fertile soil, and water supply are other topics suggested for primary grades by the committee on geography. During trips to the farm children's attention is directed to the kind of land in permanent pasture, the kind of land used for grain crops, to crop rotation, to conservation practices, and to water supply. They always dictate stories about "The Pump at the Farm" and "The Windmill at the Farm," for these sources of supply are very interesting to children who obtain water from faucets.

CREATIVE EXPRESSION

MANY opportunities for creative expression arise as a result of interests developed through field trips. Pictures of the pump on the farm, the windmill, the silo, the steel corn crib and other sketches, are made by the children. One child said, "I like to draw 'sensabule' pictures." Questioning brought out the fact that by "sensible" pictures he meant drawing to show the high side-boards that the farmer puts on one side

of his wagon when husking corn. Original compositions such as "My Experiment in Setting a Hen at Home," bulletin boards planned and arranged by children in order to summarize knowledge gained through a field trip, and other examples of creative work are in evidence.

It will be noted that all these examples of creative work were based upon dependable data. Children were drawing things that they had seen and observed carefully. Such a basis lends desirable impetus to creative interpretation in drawing, painting, original composition, and constructive activities.

A visit to an Indian Reservation, to various centers of community service, to laboratories and water-purification plants are among the many other field trips made by various grades of the school. It will be impossible to discuss these within the time allotted to this paper.

PLANNING FIELD TRIPS

SINCE the school sought to utilize only field trips that made a significant contribution to understandings in the social studies, certain principles were adhered to in planning and administration. First, the field trip should be regarded as important reference material. Interest alone is not sufficient reason for introducing this activity into our crowded program. Sound learnings that the pupils could not attain as advantageously by any other means should result from the field trip. Children must accept responsibility for obtaining accurate information and organizing this information for the particular problem under consideration.

Second, there should be adequate reference materials of various other types—books, magazines, pictures, slides—so that the pupil is not limited to one type of source material. Moreover, these materials should vary widely in reading difficulty so that each child may read books commensurate with his ability.

Third, the field trip should be used in the solution of problems. Just as the essence

of intelligent reading is to focus the attention upon problems, so the basis of critical thinking and learning in relation to the field trip is a problem organization. Moreover, children should play an active part in setting up the problems. Since the field trip is to be regarded as reference material, it is no less important that children should help to state the problems that are to guide their study than would be the case in working with reference books.

Fourth, adequate time for discussion and critical evaluation must follow the field trip. Pupils should regard these discussion periods as a means of supplementing and correcting incomplete and inaccurate understandings as well as a time for raising new problems. It is easy for misconceptions to creep in when children are working in unfamiliar fields. For example, children of the first grade were much interested in "the chickens' jail"—a term applied by the farmers to the coop in which setting hens were penned. This sentence was dictated by the children. "The farmer gives these hens feed and water even if they are bad." Questioning revealed the fact that the children thought hens that persisted in setting in the

late fall were "just naturally ornery."

Fifth, activities that may be carried out in the classroom following a field trip should be clearly needed in order to enrich understanding. In the judgment of the writer pupils who follow a trip to the farm by building a miniature farm on the floor and putting animals from the ten-cent store in the farm yard, learn little. They may have a good time but they would have an even better time testing seed corn in a rag-doll tester in order to understand a problem that grew out of observing seed corn hung to dry at the farm.

Sixth, pupils should assume responsibility for setting up standards for safety and behavior, deciding upon the best ways of taking notes, and carrying out various committee activities.

Seventh, teachers must make careful preparation in order to direct pupils' efforts effectively. Preliminary visits to the spot to be visited, questions to direct observation while there, and plans for summarizing the information, must be made in advance.

The criteria applied to the field trip are in large measure applicable to other means of utilizing community resources.

If it is democracy we are trying to preserve, we cannot exchange schools for armaments, nor lay off teachers in order to hire soldiers. We must find the way to keep both the teachers and the soldiers at their posts. Military defense must be paid for through sacrifice, but not through the sacrifice of the very thing we seek to defend (J. W. Studebaker, "Democracy Shall Not Be Plowed Under," an address delivered to the American Farm Bureau Federation, Chicago, Illinois, December 5, 1939).

Skills in the Social Studies

GEORGE W. HODGKINS

THE teaching of the social studies is necessarily concerned with the development of skills in two important and interlocking respects. On one side are the skills used in learning, and closely associated skills in giving evidence of learning and in sharing educative activities helpfully. On the other side are the skills which, together with understandings and attitudes, are needed for competence in civic, economic, and other social relationships outside school. Fortunately for economy of educational effort these two groups merge to a considerable extent in skills which may serve both purposes.

While other fields of instruction, commonly known as skill subjects, have a more direct responsibility for developing most of the skills which may be extensively used both in the social studies class and in out-of-school life, the social studies teacher is concerned with the improved use of these skills with social studies content, and is also concerned in a special way with at least a

Skills, as we have long been aware, are basic to effective learning, and their acquisition should constitute one of the major outcomes of the educational process. This article is concerned with the nature of skills that are important in the social studies. A companion article will deal with the possibilities of a constructive program for developing skills. The author is a teacher in the Central High School, Washington, D. C.

few skills which are of a peculiarly historical, geographical, or other social science type.

SKILLS AS OBJECTIVES

SOME growth of interest in the skill phases of the social studies, and some progress in meeting particular needs, are indicated by occasional papers in magazines and at teachers' gatherings, and by fuller treatment in books on social studies teaching and in courses of study. The fuller treatment generally consists of attention to particular skills and learning procedures rather than any broad or systematic view of skill training in the social studies. Among twelve of the more general books on social studies teaching published from 1932 to 1938, only four show the word *skill* in index or table of contents, though two or three others use the word so much in the text that its absence from the index is surprising.

Even writers¹ who deprecate a possible over-emphasis nevertheless recognize the importance of skill training when properly subordinated to other objectives. Tests of such skills as reading, use of maps and graphs, and use of reference books and other library accessories,² have both shown our

¹ Such as John A. Hockett, "Are the Social Studies Skill Subjects?" in *Social Education*, May, 1938, pp. 321.

² Howard R. Anderson reports on several of these from the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests in "Testing Basic Skills in the Social Studies," *Elementary School Journal*, February, 1936, p. 424. See also the tests of geography skills, use of historical evidence, and also vocabulary sponsored by the Commission on the Social Studies, and reported in T. L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences* (New York: Scribner's, 1934). Further material will appear in the forthcoming *Bulletin* of the National Council for the Social Studies by H. T. Morse and G. H. McCune.

pupils' shortcomings and given some leads for future progress. Some efforts have been made at a systematic program of skill training, particularly on the elementary-school level,³ where a considerable part of the emphasis should doubtless lie. Yet the secondary and higher levels need also to provide progressive up-grading training to higher forms and higher levels of skill as well as means for overcoming deficiencies due to inadequate prior training.

Those of us who feel that too little systematic attention is commonly given to social studies skills have no quarrel with the practice of regarding the social studies as aimed primarily at understandings and—largely through those understandings—at attitudes. When courses are organized into units of understanding, however, there seems to be more danger that the skills will be overshadowed and left to take care of themselves than that they will be given undue weight. Teachers know from experience that many pupils are weak or even lacking in some of the skills for the learning and using of social studies content, and that failure to acquire such skills at the most appropriate stage results in a snowball cumulation of unmet needs in both skills and content.

SKILLS AND CONTENT

THE choice of a course in the social studies or of the major content in it should not be determined by any peculiar usability it might be thought to have for the training of skills, for exclusive virtues for this purpose are mostly as difficult to establish as the old alleged preeminence of some school subjects for general training of

the mind. But when content has been chosen and justified, it should be so handled as to utilize to the full its possibilities as a skill-training medium. To this may be added the rather obvious fact that the choice and handling of curriculum content must depend in part upon the pupils' possession of the necessary skills for the learning of that content or upon the feasibility of their acquiring those skills as they proceed.

The relation of skills to transfer of training is not, of course, merely a superficial analogy. Skills represent a big item in the transferable products of instruction. Subject matter is voluminous and requires selection and pruning. We are not at all sure that the particular samplings we select to teach are the ones which will in themselves be of most future value. We may, however, hope that there will be considerable common elements of content, and that these, together with the skills learned in connection with the content taught, will afford a basis for handling future content and situations differing materially from those originally met.

Here, fortunately, we are concerned not with the transfer of some broad quality or "mental discipline" from one subject field to some other field, but of rather definite skills from old to new tasks in the same field. Such a transfer is much more likely to occur, but not unless we take care to plan that it should. Skills in acquiring and in using content should not be taught by means of subject matter which is, so far as we can tell, intrinsically of scanty value, but it is wasteful to teach worthwhile content without capitalizing on the transferable values of the skills involved.

NATURE OF SKILLS

SOME difficulty in discussing skill training may result from differences of meaning assigned to the word "skill." To some persons it may denote mainly if not exclusively such activities as are physically manipulative in character, and some more mental activities which are nevertheless rather

³ See a general view by Edna McGuire, "Social-Studies Skills in Elementary Schools," *Social Education*, November, 1937, p. 569. Also considerable of the work of Mary G. Kelty, in "The Processes of Learning History in Middle Childhood," *Historical Outlook*, December, 1933, p. 445, concluded in *The Social Studies*, January, 1934, p. 21; and in her book, *Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades* (Boston: Ginn, 1936), in which exercises in thought processes and in map and book skills are systematically introduced in the plan of the course.

simple in character and amenable to training by exercises of a drill type. The present writer, however, sees no need either in historical usage or in the convenience of practical distinctions for so limiting its use. We actually do speak of skill in reading and in reasoning, in studying and in teaching, as well as skill in throwing a ball or in operating a machine, in handwriting or in computation. If "skill" is not to be taken as covering substantially the range hereafter suggested, it would be necessary to find or coin some other word which would do so, as these activities all involve some training problems of a common type which make it desirable to consider them together in their broad aspects and to have some term to cover them as a group.

A skill is the ability to carry on an activity with effectiveness and a reasonable degree of facility. It happens that etymologically the word had primary reference to the knowledge or discernment that makes for skillful operation, but, though dictionary definitions still mention the knowledge component, it has come to include also the practical application of knowledge. One of Webster's definitions, "the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and readily in execution or performance," fits especially well some of the skills which are important both in the social studies class and in social life.

SKILLS OF SOCIAL VALUE

TAKING up the social-life aspect first, we shall not assume that the social utility of a skill is in itself sufficient reason for putting the training of it under the social studies. To claim otherwise would be to come near to claiming the whole purpose of the school for our field, and to go even beyond those integrated curricula with a social study core which recognize that there are some other things beside the core. The social studies are aimed primarily at that particular type of social purpose which we may call understanding the social environment, largely through vicarious experiencing with books,

discussions, and various representative media, but also drawing upon direct experiencing wherever time, distance, or other practical barriers do not prevent.

Various skills of social contact and intercourse are being trained and used in the schooling process, both in the social studies and in other school and correlated out-of-school activities, and some of these skills, such as the procedures and amenities of discussion of social problems, may have a better milieu for training in the social studies than in any other part of the school experience. It is also to be noted that some skills which are taught specifically in other courses may properly come into the social studies, not for skill training but for giving those skills their proper setting in social life—as for instance, vocational skills taught in shop and commercial classes, or sampled from general education and exploratory standpoints in junior practical arts, which can be given a broader setting of understanding through vocational civics, economics, and other branches of the social studies.

THERE are also appropriate cases where skill of a social type, tied up with social knowledge, may be introduced as a special skill-training unit in some social studies course, when there is no other subject to which it distinctly belongs and it does not bulk so large as to constitute a skill subject of its own. Some of the amenities of social life, personality development, and the like are coming increasingly into specific attention as combined knowledge-and-skill units in high school sociology or civics, or sometimes as a separate course in manners or psychology which may well be classified as a social study. Practice in procedures needed by the citizen in voting, organization work, and other civic action, as well as learning about such things, would seem appropriate as a function of the social studies. The much talked of but still rather unorganized field of consumer education should also be looked into as involving some skills along with its knowledge content, and as touching the

social studies along with several other subjects.

SKILLS IN SOCIAL LEARNING

LET us pass on to consider the skills which the social studies course uses in its own operations and for which it might be thought to have special responsibility. The social studies class has use for both some manual and some abstract mental skills, but we would not expect the social studies teacher to take time out to teach handwriting, for example, or the fundamental operations of arithmetic needed incidentally in some quantitative aspects of his subject, though he may sometimes be driven in exasperation to try or to wish he could.

Some other skills, such as in graphic arts, modeling, construction, and music, are also drawn upon to illustrate the social studies, and the teacher should certainly be an appreciative utilizer of such aptitudes, though any definite training in such skills would depend upon their importance for the work in hand, the teacher's own interests and skills, and the opportunities for correlation with the departments to which these skills more particularly belong. Cooperating specialists are now available in some integrated programs.

The skills used in the social studies will come in for more direct attention when the operation or procedure becomes more integrally related to the content for which it serves as a vehicle. It may be immaterial for skills in handwriting or in abstract arithmetic whether the words written or the figures computed belong to one subject field or another, but skills in getting and expressing knowledge through language, and through some other art forms and through certain applied mathematical media, do depend on the subject matter. We do not mean that the language skills used in the social studies are intrinsically different from those of the English class, but that we need to develop them specifically in relation to social studies content if we expect them to be used well in that field.

SKILLS AND VOCABULARY

SKILL in getting and giving knowledge through language depends on vocabulary.⁴ This means not only rote familiarity with many words but a fund of associated ideas which give real meaning to the words. Logically vocabulary may be subject matter content, but methodologically it can hardly be separated from skill training. It calls for vocabulary-building exercises and for attention to vocabulary in an incidental yet effective way in the regular course of content instruction, very much as various skills may need both training exercises and incidental attention. The danger is that, in emphasizing the broader aspects of the understandings and attitudes at which we are aiming, we may neglect to see that the necessary tools are acquired in so far as they are not already possessed.

Vocabulary in a broad sense—as a fund of knowledge made available for use by being linked with corresponding words—is a tool of the skills of learning and expression. It is a tool which becomes effective when the user has it in his mind, not when it remains outside of him. The acquisition of such mental tools is one of the concerns of skill training. It is in fact rather difficult to draw the line between information and understandings on the one hand and mental skills on the other. Understandings from one point of view are end-products of instruction; from another aspect they are means—working capital rather than consumer's goods—to make possible the acquisition of new understandings as well as the applications of old ones to practical use. Skill in learning is dependent on knowledge already possessed as well as on mastery of techniques.

⁴ An extended article on vocabulary work in the social studies, with numerous references to other writers, is that of Catherine L. McHale, "Vocabulary Building in Junior High School," *Social Education*, December, 1939, p. 612. For another approach to the vocabulary question see "Semantics Applied to Civic Instruction," by John P. Dix, in *The Social Studies*, November, 1939, p. 303; and on reading skills more broadly considered, see "Some Remedial Reading Procedures in the Social Studies," by Hall Bartlett, *Social Education*, October, 1939, p. 458.

SKILLS AND SYMBOLS

A LARGE part of human knowledge-getting and knowledge-giving is done through systems of symbols with which both getter and giver need to be skilled. Language is only one of these systems, although doubtless the most important. As already indicated, there are also various art forms, in sight and sound, ranging from the more distinctively aesthetic to the more informational. With the aesthetic the social studies are concerned—generally in a supplementary way as compared with classes in the fine arts—for some developing as well as utilizing of skills and appreciations, in addition to studying about them as a part of human culture. The more informational art forms, such as diagrams and cartoons, as to both their making and interpretation, are now fairly well recognized as calling for some attention in the social studies.

The symbolism by which geographical position and numerous other facts are represented on maps is, of course, a mastery for which the geography course assumes a primary and other social studies a considerable secondary responsibility in skill training, in combination with teaching understandings of the real facts which such symbols represent.

Time relations have their symbols in dates and time lines, which are simple enough in themselves but need to be combined with the more difficult job of training the chronological sense. Other quantitative relations are fairly prominent in the social studies, and the tools for understanding and representing them in simple number, in more statistical measures, and in graphic display, constitute an overlapping jurisdiction with the mathematics class, analogous to the overlapping with English in language skills.

In addition to these important symbolisms, we must also note that there are skills which need training for the most effective observation both of reality and of pictures, as distinct from symbolic representations of reality. Many pupils and older persons miss

a good deal of what they might otherwise learn because they are poor observers. It is well established psychologically that skillful observation is not so much a general ability as a function of interests and habits in relation to particular sorts of content and of situations. Training in this direction may be introduced partly by itself and partly in connection with symbol-using skills in the same or related context.

SKILLS IN FINDING AND USING DATA

THE basic skills for getting impressions through verbal and other media need to be supplemented by skills in the locating, organizing, and other handling of content materials. For example, the skillful use of printed materials involves not only skill in reading but also a number of accessory techniques—ability to use indexes, appendices, and illustrations, and familiarity with card catalogs, bibliographies, reference books, and library procedure. Ways of locating and utilizing knowledge from sources other than books and libraries have not so often been reduced to definite units of training but still need attention. We also have such techniques as note taking, summarizing, outlining, and memorizing, as aids to the acquiring and organizing of knowledge.⁵

While it is true that the zealous pedagogue may overstress such things beyond the capacity and real-life interests of the none-too-academic mind, there are some skills in this direction which every normal citizen should have, and higher levels of skill are valuable and practicable for many persons under carefully planned instruction. In this field of skill the responsibility of the social studies may perhaps be regarded as secondary, with some other subject, most often English, as primary. Yet these techniques are

⁵ Such skills and the broader procedures of study are extensively covered with considerable bibliography of research studies and other references in R. W. Frederick, C. E. Ragsdale, and Rachel Salisbury, *Directing Learning* (New York: Appleton Century, 1938). Related ground, analyzed into nineteen thought processes, is covered by Percival M. Symonds in *Education and the Psychology of Thinking* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1936).

sufficiently special in their application to social science content, as well as so important in the uses which the social studies make of them, that the social studies should assume a distinct part in the skill-training partnership.

SKILLS IN COMMUNICATION

ALONG with the knowledge-getting skills on this level are additional techniques for putting knowledge into forms which are conventional or otherwise serviceable for transmitting it understandably and perhaps persuasively to other persons. Skills in oral delivery and in discussional procedures (of scholastic, parliamentary, forum, and less formal types) may perhaps call for more explicit attention in the social studies class than the techniques of written expression, and extracurricular activities for which social studies teachers often are sponsors will add to the skills of the pupils who join in them.

Of very special usefulness in the classroom situation, yet not without important potential out-of-school uses as well, are those skills needed in giving true and adequate evidence of knowledge and other abilities through various forms of old and new-type tests and in informal testing situations. The vital relation between skill training and testing is not confined to the testing of skills, but extends to the testing of other objectives through the auxiliary skills used in test taking—an aspect of the testing program which deserves more systematic attention than it has yet received, especially in the social studies where it is often so difficult to reach those objectives which we want to test.

SKILLS, ATTITUDES, AND "SENSES"

ANOTHER aspect of mental skill is the habit of using certain mind-sets or selective and critical controls in some of the mental operations we have been listing in preceding paragraphs. This might be called attitude rather than skill, but there is a considerable amount of common ground pedagogically between attitudes and skills. Both

are habituated ways of reacting, and some of the procedures which are appropriate for training skills apply similarly to the building up of attitudes.

Often an attitude may be a general reaction-tendency built up by practicing a certain way of doing things. It is, for instance, difficult to draw a line between the scientific method and the scientific attitude. The natural sciences may claim a special responsibility for this method and this attitude, but the aspects which apply to human relationships—objectivity of judgment, adequacy of explanation, critical-mindedness, reliance on causal connections, and the like—call for special attention in the social studies if they are to be applied effectively by the pupil in that field. A reasonable suspension of judgment instead of jumping at conclusions, a wholesome sales resistance to propagandized ideas, open-mindedness to profit by criticisms and divergences of view, and recognition of other people's rights to differ from us, are a few of the more or less related attitudes tied up with skills and knowledge which are rather live issues in the social studies at the present time.

We can here only suggest the existence of various other mental adaptations which are not in themselves skills but which have close connections with skills in the learning and in the using of them. To some of these we are apt to apply the word "sense," such as the time or chronological sense, which seems—so far as we can interpret some rather loosely used terminology—to be thought of as a mental possession more generalized and less explicit than the particular concepts of time and the skills of manipulating time relationships. Such qualities as initiative, creativeness, self-confidence, and dependability are also an accessory part of the whole skill-training picture, being greatly fostered by skills acquired, and in turn facilitating the application and continued acquisition of skills.⁶

⁶ Various skills, "senses," attitudes, and other objectives are considered in the chapter on the social studies by Edgar B. Wesley in "Educational Diagnosis,"

SKILLS IN BROADER PROCEDURES

THERE remains, however, at least one important group of skills, within the proper meaning of that term as heretofore defined. At the head of our hierarchy of skills must be included those broader procedures in which the skilled individual "knows how to go about" some composite sort of job, drawing upon various of the more elemental skills and techniques as needed to fulfill their respective parts in the whole.

In this article we shall not attempt any comprehensive catalogue of these broader skills, but a few examples may be cited. There is, for instance, the old-fashioned but still very useful skill in content study, acquiring whatever knowledge is to be found in a given body of subject matter—a skill based upon and yet going beyond the more elemental skills of reading and memorization. Skills in the problem-solving type of study go still further, adding to these such demands as finding and defining problems, choosing or devising ways of attacking them, obtaining subject matter to fit the aim of the inquiry, and judging results for oneself.

Thirty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1935, which also contains chapters treating language and arithmetical abilities, creativeness, etc. Many of the same topics are further treated, with some special reference to age and grade applications, in "Child Development and the Curriculum," Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part I, 1939, in which the social studies chapter is by Kai Jensen. Some of the attitudes which have significant connections with skill training are covered by John T. Greenan in "Attitudes and Ideals in Social Studies Teaching," Social Education, January, 1940, p. 44.

These and related skills in the broader procedures of learning are paralleled by others which emphasize the expression side, concerning which various incidental mentions have already been made—discussion, composition, dramatic presentation, and others, in varying degrees of complexity and of demand upon planning and executive management of pupils.

Each of these broader procedures is to be regarded as an organic something which is more than a mere sum of the elemental skills on which it is based. The acquiring of the elemental skills must be accompanied by practice in putting them together, on levels of increasing difficulty and of increasing self-dependence, though with due regard, of course, for the practical limits of pupils' capacities and needs.

THIS whole hierarchy of skills represents a rather large order. Yet it is apparent that we are continually calling for their use in the social studies, that we are making or perhaps marring them by that use, and that we are generally wishing that we could or that someone else would enable our pupils to have a greater mastery of them than we actually find. Enough has been said, however, to suggest that we already have considerable resources for implementing a skill-training program, that many of the present gaps could be filled in by well-planned efforts, and that systematic skill training can be incorporated into our social studies courses to the great advantage and not to the detriment of our content objectives.

Have You Read?

FRANCES S. BROWNLEE

AS an effective antidote to war headlines, the February issue of *Survey Graphic*, third in the Calling America series launched a year ago, focuses attention on "Homes—Front Line of Defense for American Life." Vital problems of housing and planning in relation to land, taxes, finance, labor, materials, government, politics, community activities, climate, welfare, migration, industry, agriculture, and law are discussed by outstanding authorities. Several special studies dealing with zoning, building codes, and housing standards "from cellar to garret" are also included. Photographs, cartoons, and pictorial statistics are numerous and good.

Contributors to this important number include Albert Mayer, well known practicing city planner and architect; Catherine Bauer of the United States Housing Authority; Jacob Crane, town planner; Raymond V. Parsons, a member of the technical staff of one of the nation's largest manufacturers of building materials; Mrs Edith Elmer Wood, author of *Recent Trends in American Housing*; Harold S. Bottenheim, editor of the *American City*; Henry A. Wallace; Ira S. Robbins, authority on legal and legislative aspects of housing and planning; and Lewis H. Mumford, outstanding student and critic in the field of housing and planning.

In an inspiring summary of the plans and prospects of the nation Mr Mumford writes: "Our task is an immense one. We have to turn shacks into houses; we have to turn barren arteries of traffic into parkways; we have to return wastelands, cutover lands,

eroded lands, into grass covered fields or forest covered slopes. We have to take valleys as large as that of the Inland Empire in Washington, and by means of great dams, irrigation works, and power plants, as great as the Grande Coulee, we have to alter the possibilities for human occupation. We have to take our socially eroded lands—our run-down factory districts, our blighted urban areas, our over-expanded metropolises—and turn them into culturally productive communities; repairing with public funds what is good, rebuilding what is bad." And, further, "every city must proceed to replace bleak parking lots with comely parks, rotting buildings with playgrounds, congested tenements or ramshackle structures with communal housing. We have to offer a fuller social life to the lonely farm family; we have to offer a more individualized and dignified existence to urban workers, caught in the wheels of a cold, impersonal machine."

THE DIES COMMITTEE

ALTHOUGH public-opinion polls seem to indicate that the American people are overwhelmingly in favor of the House Committee on Un-American Activities and Propaganda under the chairmanship of Martin Dies, there are some expressions of resentment over what has been termed the committee's "buffoonery, turbulence, and undisguised prejudice." The conservative Texan Democrat and his investigators have been charged with disregarding the custom of substantiating testimony before presenting it to the public and with permitting on

several occasions irresponsible witnesses with personal or political motives to incriminate numerous respectable citizens. The most outstanding example of this was the assertion by two dissatisfied Republicans that Governor Frank Murphy had been guilty of treasonable activity in his dealings with the 1937 automobile plant sit-down strike in Flint, Michigan.

"The Dies Committee: An Appraisal" by the Washington correspondent of the *St Louis Post-Dispatch* in the February *Atlantic* is an informative survey of the work of the committee thus far. Raymond P. Brandt duly acknowledges the committee's commendable role in urging the Department of Justice to prosecute unregistered foreign propagandists and users of fraudulent passports.

But from the long view, the committee's tactics have had some disturbing results. "The one-sided and at times undignified procedure has gone far to discredit Congressional investigations, and the combination of the investigation with the European war has been a serious setback to the liberal cause in this country." It should be remembered that the investigating committees which effected the most lasting reforms were on the whole "models of decorum and impartiality" in presenting their findings—the Teapot Dome inquiry, the Wall Street Study, and LaFollette's recent Civil Liberties investigation.

The record of the Dies Committee, Mr Brandt asserts, has almost "fulfilled Capitol gossip of a 'Southern plot' to discredit the left wing of the New Deal, to prevent a third term for President Roosevelt, to besmirch the Congress for Industrial Organizations, and to build up the political reputations of the individual committee members."

ON the basis of a principle of logic currently used by Mr Dies, Westbrook Pegler, the advertising agencies, and almost everybody else, Stuart Chase illustrates how really simple it can be to prove that "Mr Dies is a Communist, Too" in the *New*

Republic for January 29. In a humorous vein, he points out that "identification between words, with no examination of the actual things in space and time which lie behind the words," can and often does lead to some pretty absurd conclusions.

The Dies Committee has used this kind of logic time and again. Mr Chase cites the example of a certain Miss Jenkins of the League for Women Shoppers, who, according to Mr Matthews' report was "once employed by the *Daily Worker*." The fact that she had worked for the Communist newspaper at one time labeled her then and forever, and her presence in the consumer organization was given as evidence that the League was, for all practical purposes, taking orders from Moscow. When inquiries and tests are made such charges usually collapse. But most people accept the verbal equations as they stand: Miss Jenkins was a Communist; Miss Jenkins was influential in the League for Women Shoppers; ergo, the League is communistic. Thinking that something has definitely been proved, they then "proceed to act as if the conclusions were true." And that is dangerous!

IT CAN HAPPEN HERE

IN the February *Harpers* John T. Flynn answers the question, "Can Hitler Beat American Business?" in the affirmative—"if the United States enters the war in Europe." It is hardly conceivable that Nazi legions will invade the United States in such an event, but there is the real danger of our imposing fascism on ourselves.

We know that the first effect of war will be to transform us into a dictatorship. Though the external features may remain dissimilar, there will be little difference between the American and fascist governments. The M-Day restrictions and regimentations will be inevitable, and in all probability "there will be no resistance to the most drastic controls in the crisis of war."

And after the fighting is over "we shall see our economic system reduced to the

kind of disorder and burdens and exhaustion which characterized the Germany of 1933 and the Italy of 1922. . . . We shall be driven to all sorts of strange fiscal devices and to all sorts of strange internal—and perhaps external—adventures to justify such devices. We shall have a vast naval and military establishment on our hands which we shall not be permitted to demobilize completely. And we shall find ourselves in a world of strange neighbors. Nothing can save us from the practical dissolution of our ancient liberties when that day comes, even though we may continue to speak the language of the age of democracy.”

AMERICA AND EUROPEAN AFFAIRS

DURING recent months the idea of a United States of Europe has been confidently endorsed by numerous intelligent democrats both here and abroad, as the only sane alternative to the present anarchic European situation. While this proposal has not been officially supported by the Chamberlain and Daladier governments, the British prime minister has already declared that “some machinery capable of conducting and guiding the development of the new Europe in the right direction” will certainly be needed. For propaganda purposes the high ideal of a federated Europe may be espoused as the war aim for which we too should hopefully give our all.

As “protection against too ready allegiance to what is, on the face of it, a fine, high, shining, ideal,” C. Hartley Grattan recommends a strong dose of skepticism. In the February *Harpers*, the practical aspects of federalism are submitted to careful scrutiny by the author of *The Deadly Parallel*, who sees the proposal as an integral part of “The Struggle for Peace.” He believes that since federalism requires that states who are members of the system subordinate a considerable portion of their sovereign rights to a superior power, the federal government, a controversy over the distribution of powers between the member states and the central authority is inevitable. Certainly the objec-

tives are laudable—abolition of warfare and economic competition among the states—but how are countries with long established traditions of independent sovereignty going to be persuaded to cede definitive powers to a central government?

There must also be a fair degree of uniformity in political organization among the members of the proposed federal system. There can be no really successful federalism in Europe while some states are democracies and some dictatorships. What is to be done with the dictator nations who seem to favor the Allies at present? Will Mussolini and Franco be forced to cooperate? Probably not.

The question of economic organization presents similar problems. It seems that “all federalisms of history have been erected where the same general economic principles had currency. . . .” Those of Australia, Canada, and the United States are based on principles of democratic capitalism. Can any such uniformity be guaranteed in Europe? It has been suggested that a successful political federalism must be based on a system of economic collectivization. But “under what banner is universal collectivization to be achieved?”

Nor can the task of reconciling the differences between regions within the federal system be dismissed lightly. We know how intense have been the political and economic struggles between our agricultural-plantation South and the manufacturing North; between the farmers of the West and the financiers of the East. Will the problem be less urgent in a federal Europe?

THE American correspondent of the French newspapers *Paris-Soir* and *Paris Midi* contributes an interesting commentary on American attitudes toward European affairs before and after the declaration of war, in the *Atlantic* for February. As a loyal citizen of a belligerent country Raoul de Roussy de Sales is avowedly a propagandist, but he does score some valid points in “America Looks at the War.”

It is true enough that for three or four years before the actual outbreak of the war American condemnation of Hitler and National Socialism was loud and strong. When certain groups in England and France attempted to strike a bargain with the Nazis by appeasement, a goodly number of Americans denounced the French and British governments as traitors to civilization. "The least that was said about Mr Chamberlain, M. Daladier, and their ministers was that they were blind fools in not seeing that the only thing that could stop Hitler was force"—which meant war.

But when England and France finally declared war against Hitlerism, something closely akin to a "Keep the United States Out of War" panic ensued here. Although the animosity against Nazism or any other form of dictatorship did not subside by any means, England and France were now called "Allies" and "all the mischief that they had committed between 1914 and 1917 through their propaganda was recalled and refreshed. All the arguments that post-war American historians had marshaled to prove that the United States had been dragged into the first World War against its will and its better judgment were dug out of the archives. . . . It was suddenly discovered that England and France had finally gone to war purely for selfish motives and only when they had their backs to the wall." Strenuous efforts were made to demonstrate that one side alone was not to blame and we were reminded that the Allies were greatly responsible, through their past errors, for having produced Hitler and in turn the war. All of which, according to M. de Roussy de Sales, was anything but an admirable change of heart.

WAR AT SEA

WHEN the Allies gave their pledge of support to Poland, it was generally known that the only possible route by which aid might reach the attacked nation was the sea. But not a single battleship appeared despite the frantic appeals of the Poles for

aid. The valiant British fleet remained in home waters. Well, "What Has Happened to Sea Power?"

In the *Forum* for February, William Oliver Stevens, formerly of the United States Naval Academy, argues that navies have been reduced to a purely defensive role. The ability to "strike hard" has completely vanished.

The development of new instruments of war which neutralize the efficiency of surface navies is likely the cause of this situation. Surely it is "true that the long-range coast-defense gun, the deep-sea mine, the submarine, and the airplane make the problem of surface navies far more complex. . . ." And of these, Mr Stevens believes that "air power has done most to push sea power into a secondary place."

SURVEYING "The War at Sea" in the *New Republic* for January 29, Fletcher Pratt maintains that the crucial question is whether German air power can halt the movement of British commercial shipping, or in terms of Nazi strategy, "whether it can render the protective effort required more costly than the ships protected." The author of *Sea Power and Today's War* points out that the German attempt to sink tonnage is only part of the general plan of forcing England to dissipate its naval strength.

The December aerial attacks on British trawlers and lightships were apparently part of this plan. The unit value of trawlers is small, and the mere installation of anti-aircraft guns with trained crews to man them would be a tremendously expensive enterprise. But the Germans hope "to force England into giving her fisherman real aerial and naval protection—into guarding every \$100,000 trawler with a \$500,000 airplane and a \$5,000,000 destroyer, into undertaking a protective investment beyond the value of the goods protected." And if and when "the whole cargo of a freighter arriving at an English port is needed to protect that freighter," Germany will have won the war.

In the February *Events* H. A. De Weerd, editor of *The Journal of the American Military Institute*, reviews recent naval operations as "Britain Exerts Her Sea Power."

GERMANY MAY WIN

DURING the first weeks of the war numerous charts and graphs assured us that the raw material and food supplies of the far-flung empires of Great Britain and France far outweighed those of Germany. The British blockade threatened to sever the Third Reich from most of its normal import sources, while Allied trade continued to flourish. Even the gold holdings and foreign investments of the latter seemed more than ample to finance an appreciable volume of imports. Germany, on the other hand, had been suffering from a dearth of foreign exchange for years.

The morale of the democratic nations was similarly reported to be vastly superior, and rumors of widespread popular unrest in Germany were freely circulated. In view of such odds who could possibly expect the Reich to be victorious?

In the February issue of *Common Sense*, however, John C. de Wilde debunks the cocksure prophecies of an Allied victory, and suggests that "Germany May Win." It seems to have been generally overlooked that the Nazis had prepared for armed conflict assiduously for many years. This fact may compensate in part for the comparative poverty of their resources. Stocks of foodstuffs and raw materials were carefully accumulated and the economic life of the country was organized in such a way that "the transition from a peacetime to a wartime economy was accomplished with a minimum of friction and waste." An inventory of available manpower in agriculture and industry had been taken long before the outbreak of hostilities, and government control over production, distribution, and foreign trade had been functioning with a fair degree of efficiency.

"This machinery of control enabled Nazi Germany to husband its resources carefully from the very beginning. That a drastic sys-

tem of food rationing was instituted at once was not a sign of weakness, but an indication of foresight. The Nazis have prepared for a long siege. They have the economic general staff and the organization to make the most of their resources."

RUSSO-GERMAN COOPERATION

THE original pact of non-aggression between Soviet Russia and Nazi Germany provided also for mutual economic support. The contracting parties bound themselves to increase their trade with each other to the greatest possible extent. Certainly this is highly significant in light of the European wars now in progress. Many still believe that industrial Germany, with a population of over 80 million people (excluding Czechs and Poles), and the agricultural Soviet Union with its 170 millions, complement each other in many respects and together constitute a most formidable bloc.

In the winter issue of the *Yale Review* Fritz Sternberg assesses "Russia's Economic Resources" in an attempt to ascertain whether that country's economic condition is sufficiently strong to make her a decisive factor in the economic and political balance of the world. Reviewing the well known fact that Russia has nearly all the resources of special economic importance that she needs for both war and peace—foodstuffs, ores, coal, hydroelectric power, and oil—the author suggests that the Soviet will be able to dictate the terms in any of her dealings with Germany.

But her favorable position is only relative. It might be seriously upset if the present European alignment should undergo a sudden change before the protagonists are completely exhausted. "Then Russia would have to stand on her own feet, and it is at least doubtful whether she would be able to stand her ground—alone."

In the current number of *Foreign Affairs* Bruce C. Hopper examines the question, "How Much Can and Will Russia Aid Germany?" from numerous angles and finally concludes "that in a short war of big

offensives Russia cannot give decisive aid to Germany. But if the present siege war lasts for two years, without major battles, so that there is a minimum expenditure of war materials in the field, and granted that Germany has time to accumulate war stocks and reorganize Soviet industry and transport, then Russian aid might well be decisive in determining the military outcome in the West. This presupposes, however, that Germany's internal structure could withstand a two-year siege, and that Russia would be willing to sacrifice domestic needs in order to aid Germany. Which is by no means certain."

THE SOVIET FRONT

A TIMELY article on "Russia's Strategic Seaport in the Arctic" by Albert Parry, in the February number of *Travel*, contains material extremely pertinent to the present Russo-Finnish war. Until the capture of the Finnish port on the Rybachi peninsula, Murmansk was the only ice free Soviet port in the North. Situated on the eastern shore of the Kola Bay, which is part of the Barents Sea, it is "on the main lane to all the proverbial seven seas of the world." Murmansk was practically non-existent for any commercial purposes until 1915, but it now has a tremendous advantage over the older Russian Baltic and Black Sea ports "which are closed bodies of water with gates guarded either by the Germans and British or the Turks."

British naval experts are said to have appraised the Finnish Petsamo region as "a potential key to the port of Murmansk and a guardian of all trade routes in the Arctic Ocean." But the Russians have strongly fortified their town of 120,000 inhabitants, which is now the headquarters of the North-

ern Red Fleet, and it is no secret that they hope to gain control of the strategic Petsamo district for themselves.

According to Fredrick L. Schuman in *Events* for February, it took an instance of Soviet aggression to resurrect the "League Against Moscow" because the western powers maintain a common interest in halting Soviet aggrandizement. Though Germany is fighting Great Britain and France apparently with Russia's blessing, and the Soviet state continues to wage war against "Anglo-French imperialism" in Finland with Germany's approval, Russian advances in the Baltic and the Balkans represent as serious a threat to Germany as to Britain and France.

Professor Schuman recalls the ironic fact that when the fates of China, Ethiopia, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Albania, and Poland were at stake the lone voice roused in their behalf at Geneva was Litvinov's. Finland in collaboration with the other Scandinavian powers strove in the name of neutrality to frustrate any action by the League of Nations against any aggressor. "But conditions alter cases. . . . And the excuses made by the mighty for the sins of a Mussolini or a Hitler were not designed to cover the sins of a Stalin."

This department calls attention to recent articles in popular or semi-popular magazines that should be of special interest to social studies teachers. The articles are not summarized; rather a range of ideas on current topics is presented together with references to fuller treatments.

NOTES AND NEWS

NEW JERSEY

Dr James Frederick Green of the Foreign Policy Association addressed the New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies on the subject "The British Empire Under Fire" at its November meeting in Atlantic City. Dr Green pointed out the strength and weakness of Britain and her empire in the war from the standpoint of issues involved, military strategy in western Europe and elsewhere, the economic strategy, and the political course of events at home.

The three annual district conferences were scheduled to be held at Montclair State Teachers College on February 17 for the northern district; at Trenton State Teachers College on March 2 for the central district; and at Glassboro State Teachers College on March 9 for the southern district. Edwin M. Barton, Battin High School, Elizabeth, is chairman of the northern district; George B. Robinson, Senior High School, New Brunswick, of the central district; and Samuel E. Witchell, State Teachers College, Glassboro, of the southern district.

The annual spring meeting of the Association will take place at Rutgers University in New Brunswick in May.—J.H.H.

INDIANA

At a combined Institute sponsored by Purdue University on February 3, social studies teachers of ten counties perfected an organization to further the cause of the National and Indiana Councils for the Social Studies. C. O. Culbertson of the Jefferson High School, Lafayette, Indiana, was elected president, and is already organizing local councils in the several counties of the district.

This organization meeting preceded an afternoon sectional program devoted to the social

studies. Willis Richardson, Fort Wayne, former president of the Indiana Council for the Social Studies, led a discussion centering around ethical values in social studies instruction. Howard R. Anderson of Cornell University, president of the National Council for the Social Studies, who had spoken at the general session of the Institute in the morning, participated in this discussion program as well as in the presentation of plans for organization of the district.

The state council was represented in these arrangements by its executive member in the Second Congressional District, Miss Ruth Corbin of Morocco, who was assisted by Miss Meribah Clark, president of the Indiana Council; Miss Ethel Ray of the National Council's Board of Directors; and Kenneth B. Thurston, Indiana member of the Public Relations Committee of the National Council.

Following the adjournment of the Institute, officers of the Indiana Council held a conference attended by Dr Anderson to discuss plans for the annual meeting scheduled for April 20 at Indianapolis. Details of this program will appear in the April number of *Social Education*.

Other officers of the Indiana Council recently elected, in addition to Miss Clark of Indiana State Teachers College, are Mrs Olive Byers, Technical-Vocational High School, Hammond, vice-president; K. B. Thurston, Indiana University, Bloomington, secretary; and Paul Seehausen, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, treasurer.—K.B.T.

The Department of Social Studies of Indiana State Teachers College held a state conference on the topic Building a Better Social Science in the Schools on February 16. William F. Ogburn of the University gave three lectures at this conference. Eleven other group meet-

ings were held, at which educators and students discussed the general topic of the conference. Miss Florise Hunsucker of the Laboratory School led a group of junior high school pupils in a demonstration of the teaching of a controversial subject. A number of participants from Illinois as well as from Indiana attended. —W.F.M.

ILLINOIS

The third annual meeting of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies will meet at Illinois College, Jacksonville, April 20. A feature of the meeting will be work seminars, on Friday from 4 to 6 and continuing Saturday from 8 to 9:30. The reports of these seminars in mimeographed form will be available to all members by the time the meeting adjourns Saturday afternoon.

The work seminar topics and chairmen are: "Propaganda Analysis in the Social Studies," Dr M. L. Whittaker, DeKalb State College; "Sources of Supplementary Library Materials," Dr Hilda Watters, Western Illinois State Teachers College; "Controversial Subjects," Mr Arthur Edmison, Public Schools, Mt Vernon; and "Principles and Philosophy Underlying the Social Studies," Mr Robert Ellwood, Illinois State Normal University. Anyone desiring to participate in a panel should communicate at once with the chairman.

Friday evening will be devoted to an informal social gathering, under the general charge of Miss Leonora Cofer of Pekin.

The theme of the Saturday program, starting at 9:30, is "Democracy in the Classroom." The luncheon will be at noon; an outstanding speaker, Dr Myron L. Pontius, will present a layman's views on "The Teacher as a Citizen in a Democracy." The panel discussion in the afternoon will deal with "Practicing Democracy in the Classroom."

The Executive Board has voted that new memberships shall run until April, 1941. This means that, for a new member, \$1.00 paid to the state secretary-treasurer, or to the local treasurer, will bring him a statemembership card for the remainder of this fiscal year, plus a full year in advance.

Professor Howard E. Wilson becomes the sixth active life member of the Illinois Council by action of the Executive Board. This recognition is given persons who are ordinarily outside the scope of membership but who have ren-

dered significant service to the organization. A special gold and black membership card attests the good-will of the Illinois Council. Members of this kind to date are A. C. Krey, Charles Lee, Raymond Fairchild, Robert Buzzard, Roscoe Pulliam, and Howard Wilson.—C.C.L.

WISCONSIN

The History and Social Science section of the Southern Wisconsin Education Association met at Madison on February 9. Miss Vera Zoond, exchange teacher at Janesville from York, England, spoke on the topic "A Briton Looks at the American Social Studies," and Stuart Chase on "History and Our Natural Resources." John J. Gach of Janesville presided.

IOWA

The first number of the *Iowa Bulletin* appeared December 1. It contained a statement of the Iowa Council's 1939-40 program, by President N. H. Ringstrom of Davenport High School; the presidential address of the retiring president, Dr Russell Cooper of Cornell College; an article on instructional materials for use in teaching resistance to propaganda by Dr W. W. Osborn of Central College; a message from the secretary of the Iowa Council, Alice V. Myers of the Des Moines Lincoln High School; and an Iowa State Council membership list.

The second *Bulletin* appeared February 1. Corinne Forsee of Clinton contributes an article on "American Historical Fiction," with brief reviews of novels dealing with Reconstruction. John H. Haefner of the University High School, Iowa City, lists and comments on several magazine articles dealing with labor and capital.

The issue also lists the members of the Iowa Council, and reprints some statistics on social studies offerings in Iowa compiled by O. M. Dickerson of the Colorado State College of Education.

The *Bulletin* is edited by Dr Melvin Gingerich of Washington Junior College, Washington, Iowa, from whom sample copies may be obtained.

TEXAS

Two social studies sessions will be held in connection with the third annual meeting of the Trans-Pecos Teachers Association at El Paso on March 15. Dr F. M. Kercheville of the

University of New Mexico will speak at a luncheon, at the Hotel Paso del Norte, on "Social Studies and the Spanish-Speaking Student." The afternoon session will follow immediately, with Mrs Laura Y. Warren presiding.

Dr Rex Strickland of the College of Mines will describe "A Study of Propaganda," discussion of which will be led by Fred C. Gage of Odessa and Mindora Avrett of El Paso. Lena Cole, head of the history department in the Austin High School, will present plans for "Improvement through Reading," discussion of which will be led by Dr Clifford B. Casey, head of the history department in the Sul Ross Teachers College at Alpine.

New officers are to be elected at the business meeting.—L.Y.W.

CLEVELAND CURRICULUM CENTER

West Technical High School, Cleveland, Ohio, has been designated as the Social Studies Curriculum Center for the Cleveland senior high schools for the present school year. Five other senior high schools have been designated as curriculum centers in other fields.

The chief purposes of the curriculum center are: (1) to give special attention to experimentation with new methods and materials which may, after trial, be made available to all senior high schools of the city; (2) to assist in the building of new courses of study; (3) to give demonstrations for teachers who may visit West Technical from other schools and other cities—demonstration teaching to be not of spectacular type but of day-to-day type which may be observed by visitors at any time; and (4) to prepare radio programs or broadcast over the Cleveland Board of Education radio station WBOE. The curriculum center this year is preparing a weekly current events program, entitled "Current Issues." It is broadcast eight times each Friday over WBOE. This includes preparation of radio script as well as teacher guide. Next semester radio lessons will be written for use in World History beginning in September, 1940.

The teachers collaborating in this project have been drawn from nine of the thirteen senior high schools of Cleveland. During the present year special attention is being given to the revision of the tenth-grade program. A number of the teachers assigned to this build-

ing have partial relief from class duties, to work on curriculum construction, under the general direction of the supervisor of social studies of the city.

The plan of curriculum centers has been in use in the elementary schools of Cleveland for about eight years, and has proven to be very effective in the achievement of purposes indicated above. Hough School is the curriculum center for social studies in the elementary schools.—A.Y.K.

SOCIAL STUDIES NUMBER

The February issue of *Education*, edited by Ernest R. Groves, is devoted to the social studies. Ray W. Sowers asks "How Far Are Personal Values Being Submerged in Our Democracy?" and concludes that education still has a large task in readjusting human beings to industrial society.

Jeanora Don Wingate analyzes some aims for "Democratic Living," and suggests ways of going about attaining them. Harlan M. Bisbee discusses the "Social Studies as a Background for Teachers," with particular attention to current needs and shortcomings in citizenship education.

Ernest W. Butterfield advances some "New Interpretations in Social Studies," tracing changes in society and related changes in stated aims and in procedures. Bernice Milburn Moore describes "The Rôle of the Social Studies in Student Guidance," while Mrs Chase G. Woodhouse writes on "Social Studies—a Background for All Vocations."

D. Harley Fite discusses "Making the School a Community Center." Other articles treat "The Place of Social Studies in Theological Education," "Education and Our National Needs," "The Child and Culture," and education and integration.

SPECIAL YOUTH ISSUE

The High School Journal for March is devoted entirely to reports of the work of the American Youth Commission. Articles for this issue, prepared by associates and members of the staff of the Commission, include: "The Program of the American Youth Commission," by Floyd W. Reeves; "The CCC Camps and Their Relation to Youth," by Kenneth Holland; "Inequalities in Educational Opportunity as They Affect Youth Problems," by

Newton Edwards; "Recreation for Youth Today," by C. Gilbert Wrenn; "Twenty Books on Youth Problems," by M. M. Chambers; "Research Problems in an Analysis of Personality Development of Negro Youth," by Robert L. Sutherland; and "Youth Think About Their Problems," by Howard M. Bell.

The *Journal* is published by the Department of Education of the University of North Carolina.

NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC

Pictorial "Flashes from Finland" are featured in the *National Geographic Magazine* for February along with a group of colorful reproductions of French peasant life entitled "France Farms as War Wages."

The weekly *Geographic News Bulletins*, also published by the National Geographic Society, continue to provide valuable material for the study of current events. They are illustrated and well adapted to bulletin-board use. Annual subscription is 25 cents. Address the National Geographic Society, Washington.

FAR EAST

The American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, has issued three pamphlets on Far Eastern problems: *America Holds the Balance in the Far East*, by Robert W. Barnett (44 p., 25c); *Deadlock in China*, by Lawrence K. Rosinger (32 p., 25c); and *Our Far Eastern Record*, edited by William W. Lockwood (48 p., 25c). All list other publications of the council; the last lists suggested readings. They are available from the Institute at 129 East 52d Street, New York.

NATIONAL COUNCIL COMMITTEES

January 1, 1940

Nominations. R. O. Hughes, Pittsburgh, chairman (1942); R. A. Price, Syracuse University (1940); Howard Cummings, Clayton, Missouri (1941).

Publications. James A. Michener, Harvard University, chairman (1941); Burr Phillips, University of Wisconsin (1940); and Mary Kelty, Chicago (1941).

Curriculum. Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota, chairman (1942); O. M. Dickerson, Colorado State Teachers College (1940); Fremont P. Wirth, Peabody College for Teachers (1940); Paul Hanna, Stanford University

(1940); Mary Kelty, Chicago (1941); James Quillen, Stanford University (1941); and Henry Kronenberg, University of Arkansas (1942).

Research. Ernest Horn, University of Iowa, chairman (1942); James A. Michener, Harvard University (1940); Mary E. Knight, Seattle Public Schools (1940); A. K. King, University of North Carolina (1940); Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University (1941); Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota (1941); and Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University (1942).

Civic Education. Leonard Kenworthy, Overbrook, Pennsylvania, chairman (1942); Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University (1940); Harrison Thomas, New York City (1940); Newton Rodeheaver, Beaver Dam, Wisconsin (1940); Charles P. Schleicher, University of Utah (1941); Charles Merrifield, Clayton, Missouri (1941); Hilda M. Watters, Western Illinois Teachers College (1941); John Haefner, Iowa University (1942); and Paul Grim, Western Washington College of Education (1942).

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES ON TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Bolton, Herbert E. "Cultural Cooperation with Latin America," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX: 1-4, January, 1940. Re-evaluation of Latin American civilization and its achievements.

Emery, Julia. "Finding a Place for International Relations in the Curriculum," *Secondary Education*, IX: 32-35, January, 1940. Increasing attention to international relations; need for stress on terms, leaders, and discussion, leading to wider sympathy, courage, and understanding.

Hudspeth, Jack. "Social Attitudes thru Science Activities," *Secondary Education*, IX: 17-20, January, 1940. Attention to respect for authority and rights of others, and critical and cooperative attitudes, with suggestions for content and method.

Palm, Reuben R. "How Can We Teach Current Affairs?" *Secondary Education*, IX: 13-16, January, 1940. Methods, materials, and difficulties.

Symonds, Percival M. "Economic Problems and Interests of Adolescents," *School Review*, XLVIII: 97-107, February, 1940. Finds that the greatest money problems cluster around getting a job after leaving school and preparation for life-work.

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest for "Notes and News." Items for May should be sent in by April 1.

Contributors to this issue include: Melvin Gingerich, Justin H. Hess, Allen Y. King, C. C. Loew, Waldo F. Mitchell, Kenneth B. Thurston, and Laura Y. Warren.

Sight and Sound in the Social Studies

WILLIAM H. HARTLEY

Map Studies in European History and International Relations by Wilson L. Godshall of Lehigh University, published by Houghton Mifflin, contains within one binding thirty-five map work exercises and an outline map to accompany each. Four of the studies deal with ancient history, six with medieval, nine with early modern, and sixteen with Europe since 1815. Reference to college texts and standard atlases are given for each study. The volume sells for \$1.00. The maps may be purchased separately at 60 cents a set.

Motion Picture Catalogues. The National 16mm Film Directory of Free Loan Films, edited by Lyle Miller, Scienceville High School, Youngstown, Ohio, has been revised and brought up to date. It lists over 1,400 films available to any school paying transportation costs. The 40-page, mimeographed catalogue may be obtained from the editor for 50 cents.

Films of the Pacific Area, a directory recently compiled and edited by the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, lists a number of educational films dealing with this region of the world. The price is 25 cents; the address is 129 East 52d Street, New York City, or 1795 California Street, San Francisco.

Phonograph Records. The new 1940 *Victor Record Catalogue* is now obtainable from RCA Victor Audio-Visual Service, Department N-2, RCA Manufacturing Company, Camden, New Jersey. According to the Victor announcement it is "cross-indexed to cover classifications such as folk songs, symphonies, historic gems, and many others—it facilitates the choice of Victor records to be used and assures selection of the proper recording as well." The price is 25 cents a copy. Also obtainable from the same source is a free catalogue of *Victor Records for Elementary Schools*.

RADIO

The fourth edition of the *Radio Script Exchange Catalogue* is now available, listing 513 dramatic scripts. These scripts are available on loan to any institution interested in producing radio programs. The catalogue also lists both the transcribed programs available in record form through the Exchange and the publications available from the Federal Radio Education Committee. Copies of the catalogue cost 10 cents; address the Educational Radio Script Exchange, United States Office of Education, Washington.

How Schools Can Use Radio, Volume II, published by the National Broadcasting Company, Radio City, New York, contains articles on the use of the radio and lists available current educational programs and "listening aids." Free on request.

"Musical Americana," a program "designed to make the American people better acquainted with the truly fine music which this country has produced and is producing," is to be heard over the NBC Blue Network every Thursday at 8 p.m. EST. Deems Taylor acts as master of ceremonies; the symphony orchestra of 102 men is under the direction of Raymond Paige. A noteworthy feature of the program is the series of dramatic interludes entitled "Where Else But Here?" Each week tribute is paid to some phase of American life, some opportunity or some privilege that is available only in this country.

Women's Mark on America. "Gallant American Women," the historical radio pageant of American heroines on NBC's Blue Network and affiliated stations, will continue through the Spring, Commissioner John W. Studebaker has announced.

Sponsored by the United States Office of

Education and the Women's Division of NBC, the program is on the air from 2 to 2:30 p.m. EST every Tuesday.

Programs to be heard are:

March 5	On with the Dance
March 12	Women in Medicine
March 19	Women of Fashion
March 26	The American Home
April 2	Women as Nurses
April 9	Women in Business
April 16	Women in Science
April 23	Behind the Footlights
April 30	Children First
May 7	Women in Aviation
May 14	Singing Women
May 21	Through Space and Time
May 26	Wives of Great Americans
June 4	Women in Sports
June 11	From Spinning Wheel to Factory
June 18	Librarians and Curators
June 25	On the Air

Programs already broadcast covered women's achievements in agriculture, teaching, law, letters, nutrition, civil liberties, exploration, mothers of great Americans, and women in politics and government. Among the scores of women whose contributions to our progress have been recalled to date are such celebrities as Jane Addams, Clara Barton, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Carrie Chapman Catt, and Pearl Buck.

In addition to a free reading list on American Women, now being prepared by Mrs Beard, complete texts of scripts are available from Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York City, at 10 cents per copy.

CLASSROOM FILM REVIEW

Title: *Colonial Children—1650-1700*.
 Producer: Erpi Classroom Films, 35-11 35th Avenue, Long Island City, New York.
 Length: 1 reel (10 minutes running time).
 Type: 16 or 35mm, sound.
 Cost: 16mm, \$50; 35mm, \$100 (subject to 10 per cent discount to educational institutions).
 Sponsored by Edwin Hipkiss, Curator, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, Massachusetts.

This film portrays a day in the life of a New England boy and his two sisters living in the latter half of the seventeenth century. The locale is set by a scene showing the exterior of a New England farmhouse of the "saltbox" style of architecture. We see the children busily helping their mother prepare breakfast. The mother is using typical colonial utensils. The narrator points out such objects as the gourd which is used for a dipper and the home-made wooden bucket. At breakfast the father says

grace. The children sit in respectful silence throughout the meal. Their breakfast consists of corn pudding with milk. After breakfast the children busy themselves with their various tasks. One of the girls takes care of the baby. The boy makes a broom for his mother. Then the children study from their hornbook and read from the New England Primer. Looking up from their lessons, they see a fox in the barnyard. It has been robbing the henhouse. Jonathon, the boy, takes his father's long rifle and shoots the fox. In the afternoon neighboring women arrive and we see an old-fashioned quilting bee. One of the girls weaves on a hand loom while her sister finishes a sampler. In the evening candles are lit and the family gathers around the open fireplace. The father picks up a live coal with a pair of pipe tongs and lights his pipe. The girls and their mother spin and weave by candle light. Jonathon busily shells corn. One of the girls fills the bed warmers with live coals. The day ends as the father reads the scriptures to his family.

This is an excellent film on New England colonial life. The film possesses the advantage of authenticity in the smallest details. The fact that the New England Primer is used would place the time of the film after 1690, for that is the year in which the first edition of the book was printed. Aside from this small detail, the activities and setting might be typical of an earlier period. The children take part in activities that are typical of their times.

HELPFUL ARTICLES

Myrtle Johnson, "Corridors Are—Places to Learn," *School Executive*, LIX: 13-15, February, 1940. This article explains how six corridor exhibition cases in the new wing of George Washington High School, Indianapolis, Indiana, were used during the school year 1938-39.

Junge, Paul H, "Guidance Through Tours," *The Nation's Schools*, XXV: 23-4, 51, February, 1940. Although stressing tours as a means of learning to know his pupils, the author includes a great deal of practical information concerning techniques for organizing and conducting school journeys.

This section of Notes and News will appear regularly. Readers are invited to send items of interest to Mr Hartley at New Jersey State Teachers College, Paterson.

BOOK REVIEWS

Contemporary World Politics: An Introduction to the Problems of International Relations. By Francis James Brown, Charles Hodges, Joseph Slabey Roucek, and others. New York: Wiley, 1939. Pp. xiv, 718. \$5.00.

This splendid book is a symposium in which thirty-four individuals contribute fact, analysis, and opinion on almost all phases of international relations. The first four chapters deal with such broad concepts and forces as nationalism and power politics, the fifth with military tactics and the impact of war on the internal social structure of nations. This constitutes part one. Parts two and three deal with the foreign policies of the great and small powers respectively. Part four deals with various problems of world organization, plus related questions of neutrality and sanctions. In many ways parts five and six are the most unique of the book, since part five deals with public opinion and part six contains an analysis of the problems of peace by spokesmen for six important groups.

Since the book is the work of thirty-four individuals, for the most part specialists in the subjects on which they write, one might well expect (and hope for) different points of view, as well as differences in the style and quality of different chapters. Needless to say, these various differences soon reveal themselves. Nevertheless, the quality is generally high, and the editors are to be congratulated.

The kaleidoscopic international scene has seemingly upset some of the predictions, such as those postulated upon a basic and irreconcilable antipathy between fascism and communism, and the necessity of "offensive" war. Perhaps even yet the truth is not clear. On the former point, however, the reader will certainly ponder the analysis, by Bruce Hopper, of the possibility now come to pass.

Some of the chapters are for the main part factual, while others deal with material which lends itself to more philosophical treatment. Generally speaking there is little of the ordinary textbook style, and the writers do not at times hesitate to venture their own opinions and convictions, which certainly adds tremendously to the readability of the book.

Various authors comment upon the ideological factors in their relationship to world conflict, and while they vary both in the importance which they attach to, and in the methods by which they believe these bear on; international events, you are left with the feeling that they must certainly be included among the important influences. At the same time power politics still remains the more important factor in international relations. The particular chapter on this subject, however, concludes that economic factors and questions of powers must go hand in hand in any solution of international conflict. It seems to the reviewer that the analysis lacks the clarity which is found in such a book as Ralph Hawtrey's *The Economic Aspect of Sovereignty*. The chapter on "Why War" is an interesting one, but—though this is no criticism—it hardly contains a very clear answer, however much it may stimulate the reader.

The writer knows from experience that this book is one which the college student of some maturity, the average teacher, and the general reader, will read with considerable interest and benefit. At the time it was written "conflict" but not "war" was actually in progress. Contrary to some opinions expressed, declared war, in some quarters, is now the order of the day. Generally speaking, however, the main emphasis of the book points in the direction since assumed by the march of events.

CHARLES P. SCHLEICHER

University of Utah

The Great Powers in World Politics, New Edition. By Frank H. Simonds and Brooks Emeny. New York: American Book, 1939. Pp. cxlix, 731. \$4.00.

Professor Brooks Emeny has now brought out a third edition (called "The New Edition") of the excellent volume which he and Dr Frank H. Simonds first published in 1935 under the title of *The Great Powers in World Politics, International Relations and Economic Nationalism*.

The volume still represents one of the most intelligent discussions of post-World War international relations available to students and general readers. The difference between this and the previous edition lies chiefly in a new forty-page chapter on "Recent Events," an extension of the useful chronology from August 1937 to August 1939, the addition of several good maps, the enlargement of the bibliography, and the inclusion of the texts of six more documents from the Munich Agreement of 1938 to the German-Soviet Treaty of 1939. It is to be hoped that in future editions the publishers will see fit to use one form of numbering throughout the volume.

WALTER CONSUELO LANGSAM

Union College

Handbook of the War. By John C. deWilde, David H. Popper, and Eunice Clark. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1939. Pp. vi, 248. \$1.50.

Highly informative in content, readable in presentation, and attractive in format, this volume deserves to be made required reading for every high school and college student and every intelligent layman. The authors were well equipped for their task of collating information on the war of 1939, representing, as they do or did, the research staffs of both the Foreign Policy Association and *Fortune* magazine. The language of the book is clear and non-technical; there are thirty-two fine maps and pictorial charts; and there is a reasoned and cautious comment to fit every intelligent question that may come to mind at this early stage concerning the personnel, matériel, and mechanics of the war.

The handbook begins with an enlightening description of the geography of land war in Europe and the general characteristics of the various national groups of soldiers involved. Then comes an interesting discussion of the

meaning of war of attrition and war of annihilation—of the much-publicized *Blitzkrieg*. The principles and prospects of air and sea fighting are next set forth, always with concrete examples and the careful use of such figures as are available. Following this there is an able survey of "the economic front" and an intelligent consideration of the question: "Can Germany be blockaded?" The problem of financing modern wars is analyzed in simple fashion and there is an excellent chapter on propaganda and how to recognize it. The book ends with an appraisal of the defense of America. Comparing the situation today with that of a quarter century ago, the authors hold that, "although we are less neutral in this war, we are less pugnacious, and less sentimental." Refusing to indulge in prophecy, they conclude by remarking: "All one can say is that America has a chance to stay out, if she wishes to take advantage of it."

WALTER CONSUELO LANGSAM

Union College

Europe from the Renaissance to Waterloo. By Robert Ergang. Boston: Heath, 1939. Pp. xvii, 752. \$4.00.

The publication of this volume adds another college textbook to the several already available for the period 1500 to 1815. The author has regarded history as the study of developments, and has attempted to present a "well-rounded and fairly complete picture," devoting a generous amount of space to cultural history without slighting the political and economic phases. He has sought also to include the latest findings of historical scholarship and to characterize the great personalities so that they will be more than mere names.

These are worthy aims and the large measure of success in their attainment gives freshness and strength to the book. In dealing with the great movements of the age, the author brings out effectively their antecedents and their gradual character. Enough is said about the names included to make their significance clear. Adequate attention is given to cultural history. The achievements and contributions of the leading figures in science, art, literature, and music are reviewed and a commendable effort is made to integrate cultural developments with general trends.

In general, writers of history textbooks have

been slow to embody in their volumes the results of the latest scholarly research. Every teacher who takes his work seriously should try, within the limits of his opportunities, to keep abreast of new developments. Surely the writer of the textbook has at least an equal obligation to make his work as up-to-date as possible. Dr Ergang has accepted this obligation and on a number of important topics—such as the effects of the Thirty Years' War on Germany, the Directory, the reforms of Peter the Great—his book reflects the newer points of view.

On the whole, the work is marked by sound scholarship, a clear and agreeable style, and careful organization. Several topics receive exceptionally good treatment. Among these one might mention the introduction on Basic Factors in Early Modern History, the Renaissance, the Holy Roman Empire, and Dutch Economic Expansion.

That there should be a difference of opinion on some topics is inevitable. The discussion of Spanish colonial achievement seems rather meager and unsympathetic. The spread of the revolutionary heritage resulting from Napoleon's conquests might well have been given more emphasis. Some teachers would probably prefer a fuller account of the economic changes during the eighteenth century.

The format of the volume is attractive. The maps are satisfactory and the illustrations are well-chosen and numerous. There is a list of rulers of European states but no genealogical tables are included. The index is adequate. Up-to-date, annotated, comprehensive chapter bibliographies are provided. The work appears well adapted to the basic college course in the period covered, and should prove a good textbook. It should also be useful on the reference shelf for high school courses in world history.

HAROLD T. HAGG

State Teachers College
Bemidji, Minnesota

The Nations Today. By Leonard O. Packard, Charles P. Sinnott and Bruce Overton. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. viii, 727.

The authors of this book brought out in 1933 *The Nations at Work: an Industrial and Commercial Geography*, and the first two, Messrs Packard and Sinnott, published in 1925 *Nations as Neighbors: "A Textbook in Geog-*

raphy for Junior High Schools and for Classes of Corresponding Grades" which appeared in a revised edition in 1935 with the non-American sections considerably extended. The authors represent an interest, going back at least as far as the immediate post-war years, in geography so studied as to emphasize the economic interdependence of nations. The present volume, although drawing upon the materials of the earlier books, is a new work with considerably modified organization and proportions and newly written, but with a continued emphasis on our interdependent world. It stresses the conditions of today but introduces bits here and there "on the causating past." The United States is allotted more than half of the space, 375 out of 668 pages of text and 9 out of 19 units. Hundreds of pictures, graphs, maps and a number of statistical tables add substantially to the interest and value.

The book should be judged essentially as "a physical, industrial, and commercial geography" for high schools. It does not have the originality of attack and ingenuity of treatment that appear in J. Russell Smith's *Men and Resources*, for example, but it does provide a wealth of useful material. In no sense is it a treatise on international relations, which are brought in incidentally and confined pretty largely to economic interdependence with some attention to the benefits of international travel. There is little, if any, attempt to define the difficult political problems connected with the control of raw materials, international rivalries, etc. Perhaps it would be unfair to expect this in a textbook of geography intended to meet school requirements in that subject. The book does feature the international point of view and seeks to promote friendly understanding and cooperation.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL

Teachers College
Columbia University

The Heritage of America: Readings in American History. Edited by Henry Steele Commager and Allan Nevins. Boston: Little Brown, 1939. Pp. xxiv, 1152. \$2.40.

In preparing this volume the editors have introduced some innovations. It is a book of readings and not a source book, although much of the material can be classed as original sources. Extracts are not exact reproductions.

Spelling and punctuation have been modernized and accounts condensed without the usual marks of omission. There are thirty-seven illustrations, besides those on the cover and front page.

The volume consists of 252 separate selections divided into thirty-five chapters which roughly follow those found in standard textbooks. The titles of most chapters are closely descriptive of the extracts included. In a few cases, however, as in Chapters xxiii and xxviii, the chapter headings are misnomers.

Important legal documents have been included, such as the Declaration of Independence, Washington's Farewell Address, Jefferson's first inaugural, and the Emancipation Proclamation. In the main, however, the extracts are descriptive and interesting items in themselves. Obviously this book is designed to be read by students and not used chiefly as a book for "reference reading." Readability at times seems more important than authenticity, but high school students are not very critical. On the whole, the selections have been very well chosen and should make history interesting to students, especially in the many schools where library facilities are limited. It can be used on levels from the junior high school through the college.

While the source is given for each selection and each picture, one can not but regret that fuller information is not supplied to give more adequate settings. Names of pictures and names of books are inadequate. Even with these limitations, teachers can find more helpful information in this book than in any other single volume. The editors and publisher are to be congratulated for bringing out so useful a book at so reasonable a price. It should have a very wide sale.

O. M. DICKERSON

Colorado State College of Education
Greeley

The Old Northwest as the Keystone of the Arch of American Federal Union: A Study in Commerce and Politics. By A. L. Kohlmeier. Bloomington, Indiana: Principia Press, 1938. Pp. v, 257. \$2.50.

In spite of its ponderous title and heavy style, this book should be read by all interested in the part played by the Old Northwest in the years just preceding the outbreak of the Civil War. During these years trade relations with

the Northwest, the Southeast, and the Southwest became politically as well as economically significant, determining whether the Old Northwest would look southward or would cement already strong commercial ties with the Old Northeast.

In presenting his story, Professor Kohlmeier carefully examines the traffic passing to and from the Old Northwest over the Mississippi, the Ohio and the Great Lakes. He shows the effect of the building of canals and railroads upon old trade routes, which he declares were not reversed, as some writers have implied, by the new carriers. Railroads developed parts of the country previously backward, especially in northern Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana, but the Mississippi remained a great highway of commerce. When the South withdrew from the Union, the free navigation of the river was threatened and settlers of the upper Mississippi Valley had many anxious moments. Leaders of the South, as well as Lincoln, recognized the importance of a wise handling of the Old Northwest in the fateful moments of 1861. Lincoln cleverly timed his proclamation, which forbade commerce with the South, so that it came after trade had nearly ceased. He had not only kept Kentucky in the Union, but he had avoided the disapproval of the inhabitants of the southern part of the Old Northwest who saw their trade through and with the South cut off.

Records of transportation lines, boards of trade reports, newspapers, government documents, and commercial reviews have been carefully combed. These sources have yielded rich returns.

BESSIE LOUISE PIERCE

University of Chicago

Peter Anthony Dey. By Jack T. Johnson. Iowa Biographical Series edited by Benjamin F. Shambaugh. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1939. Pp. 246. \$2.00.

Peter Anthony Dey was graduated from Geneva College, studied law, was admitted to the bar in New York in 1843, and then decided to become an engineer. His first railroad employment was with the New York and Erie. He was the engineer in charge of the construction of the LaPorte section of the Northern Indiana railroad, the first railroad to enter Chicago from the East. Then he was one of the

assistant engineers in constructing the Chicago Rock Island to the Mississippi; he helped build the bridge at Davenport; he surveyed the route across Iowa to Council Bluffs; he was the first engineer for the Union Pacific, and he resigned in protest over the construction contracts to the *Credit Mobilier*. Later he served on the commission to build the Iowa state capitol, was one of the first Iowa railroad commissioners, was actively connected with the construction of the most important buildings of the University, for nearly a quarter of a century a member of the State Historical Society, and served on the commission to resurvey the boundary between Iowa and Missouri.

Mr Dey clearly deserves a real biography. This effort is too obviously the thesis of a graduate student. Irrelevant material is included, and important information about Mr Dey is omitted. It is too scrappy and cyclopedic in style to be of much use in public schools. In its present form it is neither good biography nor good history, although it contains much useful information.

O. M. DICKERSON

Colorado State College of Education
Greeley

The Life and Times of William Howard Taft.

By Henry F. Pringle. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1939. 2 vols. Pp. viii, 1106. \$7.50.

These two stout volumes are a notable contribution to recent American history. They give us the first authoritative biography of William H. Taft. In their preparation the vast collection of his papers—nearly a half million letters and documents—were at the author's disposal without restriction, and he laid under tribute the papers and memories of many of the President's contemporaries. He himself brought to the task a discriminating judgment, the gift of clear and cogent expression and a familiarity with the era gained from his prize-winning study of Theodore Roosevelt.

In Taft Mr Pringle found a much less baffling subject than in the Roughrider President. The character and personality were more clear-cut and uncomplicated. There was more emotional stability in Taft and therefore more consistency in motive and action. The portrait drawn for us is in the main a familiar one: a big, good-natured man, ruggedly honest, generally placid and reasonable; a regular in politics, a legalist in thought, a conservative

in temperament. But we see too a man of strong likes and dislikes, a man with a good deal of stubborn determination who could strike telling blows at his adversaries.

The evidence in these volumes shows that for Taft the presidency was an unhappy and in some respects an agonizing interlude in an otherwise serene and useful life. He had no inclination for the place and would probably never have occupied it but for the persistent urgings of family and friends who diverted him from a judicial career where his tastes and talents really lay. He was uncomfortable and unsure of himself in the political arena. He lacked the "touch," an aggressive fighting spirit, the knack of utilizing the press for his own purposes, and a sense of timing, all of which his glamorous predecessor had in superlative measure. Taft instinctively shrank from controversies and floundered badly when they descended upon him. In his admirable analysis of the Pinchot-Ballinger wrangle, and again in his account of the celebrated row with Roosevelt, Mr Pringle demonstrates that Taft lost ground more through bad strategy than through a bad case. His administration, it is clear, did become increasingly conservative; it disappointed the nation on the tariff question, dabbled in dollar diplomacy, and was, as Taft admitted, "a very humdrum, uninteresting administration," yet in terms of progressive and constructive accomplishments the record proves it to have been a fairly fruitful quadrennium.

The Chief Justiceship, in contrast to the Presidency, brought out the best that Taft had to give. He felt at home. He tackled his work confidently and was more efficient and effective. His essential conservatism came to the fore again, but in his well-balanced treatment of these golden years for Taft, Mr Pringle holds that some of Taft's decisions contributed to a broadening of federal power and to the advance of economic liberalism.

A. HOWARD MENEELY

Dartmouth College

Marshall and Taney: Statesmen of the Law.

By Ben W. Palmer. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1939. Pp. viii, 281. \$3.50.

This book is written by a member of the Minnesota bar who believes that the trends in modern social development are producing

situations which make the American judiciary increasingly important. As the place the courts will occupy will be determined by the thoughts and emotions of the people, every citizen, he feels, should have a better understanding of the judicial process. This process is based upon the fact that judges are human beings not dominated by rational superiority but by their natures and the environments in which they live. Furthermore, he wishes to caution against being guided in appraising judges by the weight of contemporary opinion. He takes two chief justices of the United States, John Marshall and Roger B. Taney, and analyzes them to illustrate his thesis.

Marshall's reputation was gained not because of his profound knowledge of the law, but because of his keen perception of the needs of the times and his courage and brilliance in making his court a power in its formative years. His work was dominated by the rising nationalism of his time. He sensed it and was bold to use his court to further the nationalizing, centralizing trends of those years. He was made an heroic figure.

On the other hand, Taney was the antithesis of popular. In reappraising him, the author points out that he was more cautious than Marshall and had a greater sense of society, giving more careful consideration to the social and economic consequences of his decisions. But his attack on the bank while he was in Jackson's cabinet just before his appointment to the Supreme Court gave him a radical and unsavory reputation among conservatives, and twenty years later his error in the Dred Scott Case, which in logic but not in fact swept the ground from under the Republicans, brought their bitter assaults upon him. Thus by his contemporaries he was generally condemned. Now we can see more clearly the real value of his work and the author surmises that this work "may find subsequent justification, . . . if an expanded police power and a social point of view attain and retain control."

Thus two judges of commanding mental structure have been written down until recently as saint and sinner, not because of the social value of their law, but because in one case there was a shrewd instinctive understanding of the time and in the other an unfortunate misunderstanding of the spirit of his day.

Teachers in American history will find this

book valuable because it presents a more "human," less legalistic, method of interpreting the place of the judges and the courts in the national story.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania

Bibliographies in American History: Guide to Materials for Research. By Henry Putney Beers. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1938. Pp. 339. \$3.50.

Students in American history have long had aids in their search for materials. Lists of materials such as Larned's *Annotated Guide to the Literature of American History*, Channing, Hart, and Turner's *Guide to American History*, and Griffin's *Annual List of Writings in American History* have been available for years. Bibliographies of works in special fields have been numerous. Indexes and catalogues have been made of works in special libraries and fields of interest. Now as a sort of summary, Mr Beers has issued a volume which attempts to list all the bibliographies, catalogues, lists of references, indexes, abstracts, syllabi, and guides which will aid in research in American history.

After having searched the Library of Congress, the Union Catalogue with its 8,500,000 author entries, and many other libraries, the author has amassed a total of 7,693 volumes of bibliographical material in American history. The fourteen chapters cover the political, economic, and social phases of American history under such headings as Economic History; Political Science, Constitutional, Legal; Religious History; Social, Cultural, Scientific; and Territories, Possessions, Dependencies. Each chapter is further subdivided into smaller, more specific categories as may be seen in Chapter VI on Education. The divisions in this chapter are General, Administration, Higher Education, Secondary Education, Methods, and Miscellaneous. Under these various headings the separate volumes are listed with author, title, place and date of publication, number of pages, and in some instances, the library where the book is to be found. The volume is very well indexed so that specific topics and the works that come under these topics may be found with comparative ease.

Because of its completeness in listing bibliographical materials that pertain to American

history, this book should prove useful to the researcher in this field. Its value will consist primarily of providing a starting point in the search for materials. Thus, if a person were interested in the diplomatic relations of the United States and China he would find in the chapter on diplomatic history under the general heading of the "Pacific Area" twenty-one different compilations of references. Most of these deal with the Pacific area in general, but at least five are specifically on China. The value which the book has as a starting point will, however, be somewhat limited by the lack of annotations. In the opinion of this reviewer the lack of critical annotations limits the usefulness of the volume.

ANDREW F. LUNDBERG

University of Minnesota

Education for Democracy: The Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy held at Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. xii, 466. \$2.50.

It should be noted, at the outset, that the theme of this volume which contains the addresses and the discussions of the Teachers College Conference is "Education for Democracy." Therefore, the temptation to compare it with treatises which deal with education in democracy must be resisted. This volume registers two valuable and interesting types of democratic activity. First, a wide variety of thoughtful people from Europe and the United States were confronted with the necessity of framing a viewpoint toward the democratic crisis, and secondly, the attempt at consensus was distinctly educative.

The volume also records another significant fact, namely, that it was an educational institution which sponsored the conference, thus challenging educators in other regions to do something similar, if not identical. The participants in the Teachers College Congress included public men rather than university specialists, representatives of differing social groups and educational viewpoints rather than technicians. And yet verbally the participants agreed on the general nature of democracy. Professor Charles A. Beard, Lord Stamp, Earl Baldwin, President Frank P. Graham, among others, did agree on the necessity of intellectual freedom in a democracy as the

basis of all other kinds of freedom. Congressman T. V. Smith stressed the assumption that all men are educable, but he gave no clear indication of the kind and degrees of education required for social competence other than the training in tolerance (equanimity was his word) and the avoidance of the demagogue, the theologogue, and the plutogogue. Lord Baldwin added the further note that democrats must not only work for democracy but also be prepared to fight and die for their democratic ideals. Winthrop W. Aldrich ventured the not undangerous opinion that the crisis, cultural, economic, and political, which shadows western civilization arose largely out of "unwillingness of each one of us to fulfill voluntarily his own personal responsibility as a citizen in a democracy."

On the important matter of going further than verbal agreements, and the reaching of unity as to programs of action to preserve and extend democracy, Dean Russell laid stress on the necessity of knowledge. He said: "There were some controversies in the seminars. Some of the disagreements are fundamental. . . . Some are caused by sheer ignorance. There are many unknown areas to be explored" (p. 429).

The reviewer found of particular interest the paper by Mrs Alva Myrdal on Swedish education. Looking at the matter realistically, she found that the chief merits of the education of her country were not its professions of progressivism but rather its extension of educational opportunity to all classes, including adults. Moreover, education is not for the people, but by the people, educational bureaucracy is kept at a minimum (p. 178). This picture of organic education, geared into social needs, must have impressed members of the Congress as it did the reviewer, and for that reason he was puzzled by the statement of Lord Baldwin that we must keep politics out of our teaching of foreign policy since in this field it is very difficult to keep bias out of one's teaching. For while agreeing fully that partisanship must be excluded, it does seem to the reviewer that fuller education in international relations is just the one method available of reducing dangers of bias and of propaganda. Democratic education, in other words, to be effective, must be a kind of totality of experience, but it is opposed to totalitarianism because this is the ultimate in dictatorship, that of ideas.

This point was also stressed by Fred Clarke,

director of the University of London Institute of Education, formerly of South Africa, who said that the Achilles heel of modern education is rooted in the fact that education is afraid of its world (p. 164). He pointed out that one of the misfortunes of South Africa was that many essentials of citizenship could not be handled in a dispassionate objective fashion in the schools, but have to be left to the dubious influences of outside propaganda and political partisanship. The point is important enough to warrant another conference, in the hope that some essentials of the common welfare may become more commonly understood.

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College
Kansas City, Missouri

Economics: An Introduction to Fundamental Problems. rev. ed. By Augustus H. Smith. New York: McGraw Hill, 1939. Pp. xvi, 559. \$1.68.

This book for high school students is written very much upon traditional lines. It, therefore, makes excellent use of logical and psychological arrangement and sequence of subject matter, and of accepted terminology. Being the work of a single author, it has a consistency and continuity which too often are absent in works involving cooperative authorship.

The teaching experience of the author is apparent in the presentation of material in a form to promote and simplify the learning process. Each chapter is introduced by a statement of aims. Bold face type and italics are used to good advantage. A summary and questions close each chapter. The pictures are well selected and carry explanatory material making them an aid in understanding the text rather than mere window dressing.

There are several trends which have assumed great magnitude in the past ten years which the author has not taken cognizance of. One is the problem of the consumer. The need of educating the consumer, protecting the consumer, and organizing the consumer for self-help is omitted. There is little stress upon the limitations of economic principles. There is very little statistical material in graphic or other form to give the book a realistic approach. Some noteworthy instances of this are the absence of figures on the extent of corporate

control and on the expenditures of the federal government.

JOSEPH P. CROWLEY

Erasmus Hall High School
Brooklyn, New York

Applied Economics: The Application of Economic Principles to the Problems of Economic Life. 3rd rev. ed. By Raymond T. Bye and William W. Hewett. New York: Crofts, 1938. Pp. x, 690. \$3.75.

Professor Raymond T. Bye has published a third edition of his problem text, *Applied Economics*. This well written and informative volume designed for use in elementary college economics classes, is a companion volume for the *Principles of Economics*. The field of economics is divided into pure economics, economic ethics, and applied economics. After some attention to the subject of economic ethics, Professor Bye plunges into the application of the principles and ethics in current economic problems of consumption, management, integration of industry, labor, social security, population, marketing, the regulation of public utilities, stabilization of the monetary system, international finance and financing government. A discussion of such programs of economic policy as liberalism, socialism, communism, fascism, and economic planning is also included, and the author closes with a constructive program for economic progress in outline form.

Although there is much to commend in this recent edition of Professor Bye's *Applied Economics*, it suffers from an excessively static approach. Throughout, the boards and legal provisions applicable to labor, consumer and industrial problems are carefully outlined, but the significance of these provisions is often neglected. For example, the author seems to be content to merely summarize the procedures and powers of the Wagner Labor Relations Act without analyzing its functioning. Such critical analysis in regard to social legislation as appears is in the form of arguments for and against particular enactments. There is also a lamentable absence of historical perspective and, although Professor Bye does not separate economic ethics and applied economics, the philosophical backgrounds of his applied economics is obscure. For instance, one is gratified to discover at one point in the volume "that

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capitalism is not wholly satisfactory," but the analysis of this question does not prove convincing either historically or philosophically. It is clear in the final chapters that Professor Bye has made no significant contribution to an understanding of the historical role of communism or of fascism, although he realizes that such a understanding is basic to the solution of many economic problems. Also, in his discussion of the conflict between the CIO and the AF of L he contents himself with a mere mention of the historical background involved. The important role of the Federal Government in originating the conflict is omitted. A similar example of this neglect of historical analysis is to be found in his treatment of the NIRA. The relationship of this enactment to previous Federal legislation and to the price policies of business groups is completely neglected. The discussion of Federal anti-trust legislation is reminiscent of the textbooks written in the early 'twenties. In spite of the vital problems connected with the functioning of the National Labor Relations Board, he still devotes almost as much attention to the New Zealand Plan, the Kansas Industrial Court, the Canadian experiment, and the British Court Act of 1919.

In summary, Professor Bye's problems text is lacking in a historical perspective related to the changing social philosophy of our times, and is characterized by a static mode of treatment and a lack of integration between the problems considered.

WILLIAM WITHERS

Queens College
New York City

Foundations of Sociology. By George A. Lundberg. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xx, 556. \$3.50.

Adequate symbology is always the *sine qua non* of any science, for without it no problem can be accurately analyzed, synthesized, or solved. Consequently the quest of the scientist in any field is always "for written symbols which provide an enduring instead of a fleeting stimulus, and offer possibilities of arrangement that can not be communicated in oral language. In the course of this development we develop rude pictorial or topological representations . . . without metric implications. Geometric, arithmetic, and algebraic ways of expressing relationships usually come with the

maturity of every science. The more intricate and variable is the situation we wish to describe the more dependent we become upon mathematical systems of symbolization."

This volume goes far toward meeting the need for mathematical quantification in the field of sociology. Repudiating theological and metaphysical considerations as possible factors in social causation, the author stands squarely for a unified scientific social orientation and within that frame of reference seeks to lay the symbolic foundation for the development of a natural science theory of human society. Thus, it is hoped, the study of human affairs will develop upon a scientific rather than a mystical basis, and with that development will perhaps disappear the present major threat to western civilization—the "social lag" of institutional behind technological culture. And surely a generation which employs its science in self-destruction needs, though it may not desire, to eliminate that lag.

EDWARD G. OLSEN

Colgate University

Fundamental Sociology. By E. J. Ross. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Company, 1939. Pp. xi, 698. \$3.00.

The title of this book is something of a misnomer. The word sociology by general consensus has come to mean a scientific study of human relations; the volume being reviewed for the most part is a Roman Catholic moral philosophy with a substantial amount of sociological terminology, social philosophy, and objective sociological data throughout. It is difficult for a non-Catholic to evaluate the book because of basic differences of opinion relative to what "sociology" is—science or philosophy? Nevertheless, captions like "God's Purpose and Plan in Marriage" (p. 166) hardly seem consistent with lip service to the current view that sociology "does not intend to be a normative science" and "is not supposed to be concerned with judgments of values" (p. 10). In stating "the postulates of sociology" five out of the six postulates enunciated are theological, for example, "that God exists, who is the creator of all things . . . that Christ, the Son of God, established the church to which he gave Divine authority . . . that man has a spiritual soul. . . ." The author of the book feels, throughout the volume, constrained to dichot-

omize "Catholic sociologists" and "sociologists."

The scholarship which underlies the volume is unquestioned. Bibliographies are on the whole good, although many standard books are omitted. In places the exposition of basic principles of sociology is unusually cogent, as, for example, the discussion of culture (pp. 60-61). At many points numerous factual data are presented with care and precision. In numerous other places, however, scientific evidence is manipulated in order to bring it into conformity with clerical dogma. Cases in point are: (1) "In general the primitives are more or less monotheistic in their belief" (p. 197), and (2) "The only form of marriage which is to be found in all social groups is monogamy" (p. 151). These statements are technically correct as stated but definitely false in the connotation because of equivocations such as "more or less" and "are to be found in." The fact is that although monogamy is a permitted marriage form in almost all societies, the preferred and predominant forms in many are polygyny, polyandry, and in some cases group marriage. This the reader does not get from the book. Likewise monotheism in its accepted meaning is far from the universal primitive religion form. Data for comparative ethnology and sociology indicate that much of what was formerly thought to be biological and universal in human behavior we now know is cultural and variable.

The author apparently feels constrained to find "evidence" to support the *status quo* even at great sacrifice of scholarship. A scientific work does not find it necessary to "justify" private property, any other kind of property, or any other institution. These functions, if necessary, belong to the philosopher, the politician, the theologian, or others whose role permits of advocacy. A scientist may, to be sure, analyze various arguments for and against some issue to determine the soundness of their contentions, but when any writer presents one set of arguments to the exclusion of all others, he is neither a scientist nor an educator, but rather a propagandist.

Within the limitations inherently imposed by the "Censor Librorum," the book is obviously of high quality. The problem centers around the issue of what "sociology" is—science or philosophy. If it is philosophy, then the authors of sociology books are free to advocate

and free to interpret as they wish so long as facts are not misrepresented. But the consensus among professional sociologists is that sociology is science, that it seeks to discover what is truth in its realm, not assume ultimate truth and then use data as illustrative materials only.

JOHN F. CUBER

Kent State University

Major Social Institutions. By Constantine Panunzio. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xxii, 609. \$3.50.

Focusing attention upon eight basic institutions, Professor Panunzio here presents a synthetic sociological analysis of contemporary Western culture. Other writers before him have summarized in textual form the institutional data of scientific sociology, but none known to this reviewer have compiled a treatise as unified yet encyclopedic as this one. Although the book is divided into five parts, each stands in constituent relationship to all of the others, and taken together they provide an exceptionally valuable orientation to the basic structure and functional operation of modern social relationships.

Part I establishes the meaning of "social institution" and describes the underlying institutional pattern of human society. Part II analyzes physical nature, biological nature, and previous culture as the triple source of present institutions. Part III discusses marriage, the family, the economic order, education, recreation, religion, science, and government as principal institutions of Western civilization. In each instance the specific originating factors, the development and organizational forms, the chief folkways and mores, and the current problems and trends are fully examined.

Part IV considers the essential social processes and conditions which underlie the evolution and operation of all institutions. These processes the author designates as *emergence* (time and place origins of culture), *development* (evolution, progress, social planning, etc.), *change* (causes, types, rates, etc.), *struggle* (between classes, between generations, conservatism vs. liberalism, urbanism vs. ruralism, etc.), *maladjustment* (sources, types, palliatives, reforms, reconstruction, etc.), *control* (guidance, coercion, etc.), *persistence* (extent, kinds, causes; inertia, conservatism, etc.), and *teleology* (idea of progress, white man's bur-

den, manifest destiny, Nazi racialism, etc.). Part V presents a final summary of current institutional patterns, trends, procedures, and problems, together with a cautious inference as to the future of Western civilization. After identifying the major dilemmas of our time as those of the use to which we shall put our science, the choice we shall make between capitalism and socialism, and the problem of international organization, the author finally concludes that "in the last analysis the contest of modern times is one of economic life. . . . Meanwhile the conflict between individualism, socialism, and communism is on throughout the West. With set jaws and clenched fists, the closed ranks of the vast armies of the nations representing these respective systems are glaring at one another across their borders over this very issue. It will be the chief cause of the next great conflict, and it will be West-wide if not world-wide. And the gods, if gods there be, must throw back their heads and guffaw at the utter stupidity of the societies of man."

Various mechanical aspects of the volume add greatly to its value and appeal. The analytical table of contents, bold-face topical head-

ings, suggestions to students and teachers, and above all the splendid glossary of technical terms deserve special commendation. Secondary school teachers will find this book more than ordinarily useful as an authoritative reference work for the social studies library. And college instructors will recognize it as an exceptionally stimulating text for beginning students in sociology or in social science survey.

EDWARD G. OLSEN

Colgate University

Race Relations and the Race Problem: A Definition and an Analysis. By E. T. Thompson, R. E. Park, and others. Durham: Duke University Press, 1939. Pp. xv, 338. \$3.50.

The appearance of this volume is a definitely encouraging sign for it indicates how universities are becoming concerned with problems of contemporary living and particularly with these of their own regions. Although this volume does not concern itself primarily with specific procedures for allaying race feeling, since it is a scientific treatise on different aspects of the race problem in a Southern setting, it appears in the year in

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which mob violence against Negroes diminished to the lowest number reached in recent years. During 1939, according to the President of Tuskegee Institute, there were but three lynchings in the United States, and one of these was white. But the world record is less reassuring.

The growth of nationalism, fascism, and racism, in various parts of the world, has accentuated the race problem. Professor Park with his usual skill and urbanity explores the concept of race and of race relations historically and otherwise. Taking a long view he predicts the decline of race tensions. Attention may be directed to other aspects of social living, for one thing. And Professor C. S. Johnson, of Fisk University, takes the position that scientifically this is demanded since, in his opinion, race relations are only incidentally racial and primarily economic and cultural. The attempt to resolve some of the problems, both economic and cultural, may throw the emphasis away from racism, although the surest cure is knowledge about man himself. One of the contributors to this symposium quotes from Julian S. Huxley and Alfred C. Haddon in *We Europeans* as follows: "Racialism is a myth, and a dangerous myth at that. It is a cloak for selfish economic aims which in their uncloaked nakedness would look ugly enough. And it is not scientifically grounded. The essence of science is the appeal to fact." The steady appeal of facts may be retarded by the war, although it now appears in perspective that our own Civil War was much less revolutionary as respects race relations than in many other aspects.

The editor has succeeded in fitting the various contributions into a readable account of the race problem.

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College
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The Races of Europe. By Carleton Stevens Coon. New York: Macmillan, 1939. xvi, 739 pp. \$7.00.

Professor Coon's textbook for advanced students of anthropology attempts and achieves two goals. It presents with great fullness the materials and the methods whereby physical anthropometry divides the single species, Man, into races; and it offers a number of original interpretations and hypotheses to bridge over

difficult gaps. Though its language is often needlessly involved, the work is clearly and systematically organized and thoroughly indexed, which makes it the ideal reference book on the subject. Like its predecessor of the same title, published by Ripley at the turn of the century, it embodies all that is known or conjectured about the chief European races at the moment of writing. A collection of several hundred photographs, with corresponding tables of measurements and maps showing geographical distribution, adds ocular and mathematical evidence to the descriptive and historical text.

One is thus in need of a certain strength of character to remember that the basic assumption of the work—the existence of distinct races—remains an unproved hypothesis throughout. The author confesses at the outset how difficult it is to banish skepticism in this regard, and to the question "What is a race?", he tells us that he can only give an elastic answer. Originally derived from the somatic differences observed and measured in human beings, the concept of race seems to work until we are faced with the problem of separating these differences into distinct groups. This step can only be taken, according to Professor Coon, with the aid of history, the reason being that man is a social animal whose migrations and other forms of self-subjection to new environments have altered his physical characteristics. A race is therefore always changing, and history, in recording these changes, contains the data for defining the significant racial traits and groups.

This unhappy circular argument, by which uncertain history aids the baffled biologist to reach a supposedly scientific fact, is the old stumbling-block of the nineteenth-century anthropologists, from Gobineau and Broca to Ammon and Beddoe. History groups people by chance and not by common somatic characters; and having done that, it reports very inadequately on the relevant matters of family origins and physical appearance. At the same time, the pre-history on which ultimate racial divisions rest is even more precariously poised on a few highly uncertain facts. Lastly, as Professor Coon admits, the Mendelian pattern of inheritance might usefully be applied to the study of man if man were not such a genetically complex creature, and if we knew what to measure. It seems to follow from these several

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lacunae that the discovery of separate races and the ascribing of a racial character to any living group or individual are at best questionable conjectures. This is so even when, as in Professor Coon's work, the book scholarship and the field work are at once extensive and thorough.

Fortunately, *The Races of Europe* carries its own corrective for any reader who duly weighs the strength of Professor Coon's inferences and admissions. The author is more than candid: he is generous in stressing the great effect of culture, diet, and social imitation upon the human shape; he is fully aware of the difficulties and discrepancies of measurements; and he has the good sense to refrain from psychological portraits. He is perhaps less concerned than he should be over the meaning of statistical comparisons and the influence of the nervous system on outward form. But these are faults inherent in his point of view. No doubt a thrashing out of the difference between this point of view and mine would lead straight into a philosophical discussion, namely, "what is the truly scientific study of man?" But since that is likely to be the discussion of our century at large, in every branch of learning, we can only rejoice that one side of it has been so fairly and exhaustively set forth in Professor Coon's textbook.

JACQUES BARZUN

Columbia University

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